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ABSTRACT

The last of 16 booklets designed for use in an Open University course on the education of handicapped students in the United Kingdom, this text focuses on integration and ways it might be pursued. Questions are posed for the student to answer concerning various aspects of integration, including the amount of centralization needed, the effects of limited resources, and integration as a basic right for all. An ideal for an integrated school, with heavy community involvement and mixed ability teaching is posed. Ways in which integration can be pursued at the national, local, school, and individual levels are explored. Such factors as school curriculum and organization, teacher roles, and pre- and post-school programs are addressed. A final section considers barriers to change (such as official resistance and professional caution) as well as agents for change (including parents and advocacy organizations). (CL)

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E241 16

The Open University
Educational Studies: A Second Level Course
Special Needs in Education

AN ALTERNATIVE SYSTEM: A SPECIAL IMAGINATION

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The Open University
Educational Studies: A Second Level Course
E241 Special Needs in Education

Unit 16
An alternative system: a special imagination

Prepared by Tony Booth, Patricia Potts and Will Swann for the Course Team

The Open University Press

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Note on reading

Set reading

One reading for this unit is to be found in:

SWANN, W. (ed.) (1981) *The Practice of Special Education*, Oxford, Basil Blackwell/The Open University Press (the Reader). It is:

HEGARTY, S. and POCKLINGTON, K. 'A junior school resource area for the visually impaired' (Reading 3.2).

The other reading for this unit is included as the appendix.

The case studies for this unit are to be found in:

BOOTH, T. and STATHAM, J. (1982) *The Nature of Special Education*, London, Croom Helm/The Open University Press. They are:

'Some aspects of special education in Oxfordshire: innovation and change' (Case study 51).

'Integration in practice: a small rural primary school' (Case study 40).

'An individual timetabling system' (Case study 48).

'Blueprint for increasing integration in an infant school' (Case study 50).

Further reading

BOOTH, T. and POTTS, P. (eds) (1983) *Integrating Special Education*, Oxford, Basil Blackwell.

HARGREAVES, D. H. (1982) *The Challenge for the Comprehensive School: culture, curriculum and community*, London, Routledge and Kegan Paul.

HEGARTY, S. and POCKLINGTON, K. (1981) *Educating Pupils with Special Needs in the Ordinary School*, Windsor, NFER/Nelson.

HEGARTY, S. and POCKLINGTON, K. (1982) *Integration in Action*, Windsor, NFER/Nelson.

NEWELL, P. (1983) *ACE Special Education Handbook—the new law on children with special needs*, London, Advisory Centre for Education (ACE).

Broadcasts

The broadcasts associated with this unit are Television programme 8 and Radio 8.

1 Introduction

> It seems to me that understanding things imaginatively is itself a deep source of pleasure and satisfaction. But it is also the only possible way to intelligent action. In order to see how things can or should be changed, it is necessary first to know what they are, even how they came to be as they are . . .
>
> Imagination, then, is what enables one both to understand how things are, and to raise the questions, 'Need they remain like this?' and, 'How could they be different?'
>
> (Warnock, 1978, pp. 8–9)

1.1 In writing this course we have tried to answer three questions: What is going on in special education? How do we make sense of what is going on? What *should* go on in special education? Units 1–8 look at current practice in the UK, Units 9–13 provide historical, comparative, and a variety of theoretical perspectives with which to understand contemporary practice, and Units 14 and 15 examine appropriate models of prevention and research. In this final unit we shall look at the form special education needs to take if we want as many children as possible to attend their local primary and secondary schools.

1.2 The next section reviews some of the questions you need to ask and answer in order to come to a conclusion about whether and how integration might proceed. Section 3 examines the integrated school, posing an ideal of community participation in education as a distant goal of the integration process. Section 4 returns to where we are now and examines the plans that can be implemented at national, LEA, district, school and child level if integration is to proceed. It is doubtful whether the changes we describe will be achieved in the foreseeable future. There are formidable forces opposing the development of an education system geared to the needs and interests of all the participants in it. Section 5 of this unit looks, once again, at the barriers to and possibilities for progress.

2 Making up your mind about integration

How should integration be defined?

2.1 In this course we have defined integration in education as the process of increasing the participation of *all* children in mainstream schools—not just children who are at present in special schools or are designated as having special needs. The process not only involves the phasing out of the segregated system, but also has implications for the internal organization of all schools if they are to respond to the diverse needs, interests and backgrounds of their pupils. You can consider how you yourself would define integration and how far you would wish such a process to continue by looking at two continua. Table 1 represents a continuum of provision for children with physical disabilities, and refers to stages in the placement of children and the levels of support they receive. Of course there are a vast number of degrees of participation in the social and educational life of ordinary schools which are not included in this table. The amount of contact with non-disabled children may vary, and there are many different ways in which children with disabilities may be included and supported in ordinary lessons.

Table 1 A continuum of provision for children with physical disabilities.

1	Unsupported member of ordinary class group
2	Child given support in ordinary class
3	Part-time withdrawal to a resource base
4	Full-time attendance in a special class in the ordinary school
5	Part-time attendance at day special school
6	Full-time attendance at day special school
7	Full-time attendance at boarding special school
8	Full-time attendance at hospital and hospital school

2.2 Table 2 depicts the process of moving children up the range of provision shown in Table 1 as only part of an integration process which involves a succession of revisions to the whole educational system. It indicates that one logical consequence of increasing the participation of children in ordinary schools is that there should be a transfer of power within them from professionals to children, their families and communities. It depicts integration as an essentially political process. You will have to decide how far along this particular road you would be willing to travel.

Table 2 An alternative continuum of integration.

1 *Coming out of special schools.*
Gaining entry to ordinary schools.
Becoming full time members of ordinary schools.
Having positive contact with other children.
Participating jointly in educational activites.
Participating in [non-academic] lessons.
Participating in academic lessons.
Participating in the core curriculum.

2 *Reorganising ordinary schools.*
Extending mixed ability teaching.
Relating the curriculum to the needs and interests of pupils.
Organising support through team teaching.
Revising the relationship between examinations and the curriculum.
Making the core curriculum of the school reflect the capacities and interests of all the pupils.

3 *Developing community schools.*
Using schools as a resource for the whole community.

4 *Changing patterns of control in ordinary schools.*
Sharing control of education between teachers, pupils and the community.
Developing patterns of democratic control.

5 *Delivering education to the community.*
Making educational resources freely available to the community wherever people need them.
Supplying the means for communities to determine the nature of and make provisions for their own educational needs.

Source: Booth and Potts, 1983, Chapter 1.

What are the arguments for segregation?

2.3 Proponents of arguments in favour of segregation in special schools can be divided into two groups. Some people believe special schools should be retained because of the concentration of resource and expertise that they permit. But this is really an argument for *centralization* rather than for special schools, and clearly the centralization could take place in association with other children in ordinary schools. The only valid educational arguments for special schools are those which include the *isolation* of a group of children as an essential feature of the education they are to receive. A considerable amount of confusion has arisen because of a failure to separate the two strands of the segregation argument.

2.4 The isolation of the children might be advocated for their own protection, for the protection of others, as a punishment, or because a definite educational benefit is likely to be derived by such a separated grouping. It is hard to sustain an argument that placing groups of children together in 'maladjusted' provision could actually be for their *own* benefit. They are often with the very children who are most likely to exacerbate their problems. Such separate schools are seldom desired by the children or their parents, and the children are usually placed there in order to relieve tensions within the ordinary schools. Isolation for a very different reason is sometimes recommended for deaf children. Some people, including many deaf adults, argue that the perpetuation of the language, culture and community of the deaf depends on the continued existence of boarding education for deaf children. Advocates of separate schooling for children with severe learning difficulties, too, maintain that such schools offer protection from a prejudiced world and that they are the foundation and insurance for advances in the education of the severely mentally handicapped children.

2.5 Most of the arguments that have been advanced for segregated education are really arguments for centralization of special education. Even with the case for special schooling for deaf children it is unclear whether it is isolation or centralization that is demanded and required. Some deaf adults, indeed, have seen moves to integrate deaf children as an assault on the language, culture and communities of the deaf (Turfus, 1982). Many deaf people for whom British sign language should have been their first language have been denied their natural means of learning and communication by an over-emphasis on oral methods in education. Deaf children do have particular needs for a community of sign language users as well as for the appointment of teachers who are themselves deaf. This does require some degree of centralization of resources, but should it take place outside ordinary schools? We would argue that the misunderstanding of the needs of deaf children is partly a consequence of their past segregation. These arguments are considered at greater length in Chapter 1 of *Integrating Special Education* (Booth and Potts, 1983). In the same book Colin Low outlines the process of integration for blind children, and suggests that it is limitations on resources rather than the needs of blind children for each other which make centralization necessary.

How much centralization should there be?

2.6 In Italy, the integration laws specify that handicapped and non-handicapped children are to be educated in the same classroom. In the US, there is a far greater variety of integrated provision than in Italy. In some places, groups of special classes are clustered in single ordinary schools. In others, a single resource base is established, either for a category of children such as the blind or as a general service for all children in the school (see Unit 10). In theory, the provision of resource bases permits a gradual increase in participation in the life of the school as pupils and teachers increase their skills. Even if handicapped children spend most of the school day in the resource base, they can still be viewed as members of ordinary classes. In the US, some resource bases are used for a relatively short period of special training before the children return to their neighbourhood schools.

2.7 There is a danger that resource bases may become no more than closed special classes or units, and that children with special needs will remain in a separate stream in the ordinary school. In the last few years the growth in the proportion of pupils attending special schools in the UK has slowed down. However, the number of special classes has grown steadily and considerably. For integration to proceed, children must move from special schools and also from special classes into ordinary lessons.

2.8 Adherence to a principle of integration implies that centralization as well as separation be kept to a minimum and that a continuous effort be made to decentralize resources. No LEA has systematically tackled the extent to which children from special schools *or* units *or* who receive resource base support can actually be enabled to return to their neighbourhood schools. The response to such issues may reflect geography as much as morality. In country areas any degree of centralization may involve an unacceptable distance between home and school. In Norway, where the choice is often between a small local school or boarding education because of the distances involved and the difficulties of winter travel, integration is usually seen in terms of support in the local school.

2.9 It is difficult to make any predictions about the necessary degree of centralization in advance of the implementation of an integration principle. While the integration debate has been conducted almost entirely in terms of children brought in from outside the ordinary school, the application of the principle involves an end to the process of *exclusion* of children from ordinary schools. If fewer and fewer children were to be excluded from their neighbourhood schools, then a new degree of 'acceptable' centralization would be continually evolved.

Who can be included in ordinary schools?

2.10 Separating arguments for segregation into those for isolation and those for centralization helps to clarify who can be included in ordinary schools. The only groups

for which a strong argument can be erected against their inclusion are those who need to be isolated. All other handicapped children can be included in some way within ordinary schools and a definite plan can be devised to foster the integration process for them. If profoundly multiply handicapped pupils can be included within an ordinary school in south Derbyshire, it seems difficult to sustain an argument that any group of children should be excluded on the grounds of the *severity* of their handicap. In Television programme 1, the father of a profoundly mentally and physically handicapped girl explained the effect on him, his daughter and the other children of being in a unit for mentally handicapped children attached to an ordinary school:

> It's done wonders for her . . . We went to the baths and there was a couple of young children there. Now I didn't know them but they knew Susie because they were from her school, and they were talking to her as if she were a normal child. It's very interesting really . . . In today's society where they are integrating these children they obviously will become more used to them and accept them better.

2.11 However, Susie's school in south Derbyshire is the only ordinary school we have come across which includes such profoundly handicapped children with no speech or mobility. At first it may seem as if there is little point in integrating such children, for it would bring few benefits because of their low level of social awareness. Yet, as this father's comment illustrates, in assessing whether such a move has advantages we may have to look at effects apart from those on the child herself: at the reactions of parents, who are integrated into the ordinary schools and who may be able to have all their children in the same school if they live close to a centralized resource; at the gradual erosion of fears and prejudices within ordinary school children and the community, of which Susie has become a visible part and whose responsibility she will continue to be.

2.12 But perhaps the greatest challenge to the progress of integration is posed by children who are placed in schools for the 'maladjusted' or who attend disruptive units. They represent the one area of separate special education still undergoing expansion. While it is possible for all other groups of children to be attached to ordinary schools like 'limpets' which leave the running of the school undisturbed (see Jones, 1983), the re-inclusion of disaffected pupils forces a change in curriculum and organization (see Television programme 7). Any LEA plan for integration has to examine the total school population and ensure that no school can exclude children by redesignating them from 'slow-learning' (who have to be integrated) to 'troublesome' (who can be sent to schools for the maladjusted). The approach to disaffection in schools varies from region to region and from school to school, and there can be little doubt that a concerted LEA policy could begin to reduce exclusion and suspension rates.

Are limited resources a barrier to integration?

2.13 A report by the Oxfordshire division of the National Union of Teachers (NUT) argued that since the Government has refused to provide additional money, a correct interpretation of the 1981 Education Act in England and Wales would involve 'no integration' (NUT, 1981). The National Foundation for Educational Research (NFER) (Hegarty and Pocklington, 1981) argued that 'there are many pupils in special schools at the moment who could be educated satisfactorily in ordinary schools, given the requisite commitment and resources'. At a conference in Norway where per capita educational expenditure, particularly in special education, is far higher than in the UK, the representatives of the Norwegian teacher unions argued similarly that integration was limited by the availability of resources. The Portuguese representatives at the conference, who were used to financing education on a comparatively miniscule budget, found such arguments difficult to accept, for they were based on the continued existence of an expensive, parallel, separate system of special education. Any discussion of the resource implications of integration have to presume a transfer of resources into the ordinary schools and an ending of parallel systems of delivering special education (see Jones, 1982).

2.14 The idea that we should determine whether it is financially viable to include some children in ordinary schools presumes that they are already segregated. The issue

appears rather different if we argue for the exclusion of a child from an ordinary school on the grounds that it saves us money. In a comprehensive system, instead of asking 'is it financially viable to include this or that group of children?' we would ask 'what is a just division of a school's resources?' Financing integration can best be understood in terms of *priorities* in distributing education funds. Under the 1981 Act the only group for whom additional provision is safeguarded are the two per cent of 'statemented' children (see para. 4.42). Where remedial provision is being cut in ordinary schools, the disappearance of resource bases and flexible teaching strategies make the introduction of additional groups of children more difficult. In the Grampian region of Scotland the budget for remedial support teachers has been taken out of the reckoning for potential cuts. In Norway integration is funded in two ways: 'A' funds, equivalent to ten per cent of the annual budget, are allocated to all schools for flexible group teaching to aid the education of pupils with learning difficulties; 'B' funds, which have to be renewed annually, are given to assist the integration of more severely handicapped pupils. In the US, additional funding is provided for up to twelve per cent of children assumed to have 'exceptional' needs. Effective integration depends on this wider view of positive discrimination.

2.15 Many Italian teachers have argued that the assignment of special funds to individual children on the basis of a diagnosis of handicap leads to unnecessary categorization. They believe that funds should be distributed to schools according to the needs of the community, so that impoverished areas and inner cities get a larger proportion. It would then be the responsibility of individual schools to ensure that their resources were distributed according to the needs of their pupils. Such a suggestion has its attractions If teachers in ordinary schools take equal responsibility for all children irrespective of their level of ability, background, individual interests or handicap, then they can be relied upon to distribute resources according to need. Are we ready to trust our schools?

2.16 In Norway and the US, as well as the UK, special education may be seen as in competition with ordinary education for scarce resources. In the NFER study, a number of head teachers felt that their schools 'as a whole' were subsidizing special classes attached to them. The authors commented, 'teachers observe that pupils with special needs have a greater need of specialist resources and may feel that their presence is a drain on the school's resources and reduces provision for other pupils' (Hegarty and Pocklington, 1981, p. 300). However, if people thoroughly absorb the integration principle, then such separate interest groups should merge. Any dissatisfaction with the level of resources given to children should lead to pressure to enhance the *overall* education budget.

2.17 The main costs of integration, then, are those involved in switching from one system to another, although in making the switch there will also be savings on boarding education and travel, as well as a wider use of both specialist resources and the resources of the ordinary schools. But it is far from clear that all the resources involved in initiating integration should come out of the special education budget. At the moment, this budget is expected to meet the costs of adapting school buildings for physically handicapped pupils. There is an implication in the 1981 Act that children will be said to have learning difficulties if their sole problem is physical access to the ordinary school, and that arranging such access will be regarded as special education provision. Yet the Chronically Sick and Disabled Persons Act 1965 made it illegal for public buildings not to include facilities for the disabled if they were erected after 1970. Although the DES has drawn attention to this in a circular, it has never been incorporated into the building regulations of new schools. If we were to follow the American example and recognize and *enforce* the right of access to public buildings of disabled people, then providing ramps or lifts would not be viewed as a cost of integrating *handicapped children*. This ought to be an issue which could be taken up by the teacher unions on behalf of their disabled members. The extent to which people with disabilities can gain access to the training colleges, departments of education and the teaching profession is one obvious way of assessing the progress we are making towards integration.

2.18 Hegarty and Pocklington have drawn up a list to aid costing of new integration schemes which we reproduce in Table 3. As you look through it you should note which items might be related to an additional cost of integration, which simply relate to the provision of special education and which might involve savings. The costs of 'special education' in ordinary schools can only be worked out at all precisely at the point when

new provision is being made. Once children with special needs become the pupils of an ordinary school and are mixed with its other pupils, it becomes extremely difficult to determine what money goes for which pupils.

Table 3 The costs of integration.

1 Staff and professional services
This will be the main source of expenditure. Costs will be incurred under three headings:
i salaries and wages, plus NHI and superannuation;
ii training expenses;
iii other staff-related costs, including travelling.
These costs will be incurred variously for the different categories of staff involved. It is convenient to group them as follows:

A staff employed wholly or mainly for the integration programme:
—teachers;
—welfare assistants;
—others, including therapists, nurses and general assistants but excluding drivers;

B staff with part-time involvement:
—other teaching and support staff from the school;
—external staff (education), including peripatetic teachers, psychologists, advisers;
—external staff (other services), including speech therapists, physiotherapists, medical and nursing staff, social workers.

2 Premises
This includes . . . :
i new purpose-built accommodation;
ii major adaptations to existing buildings;
iii minor alterations, such as ramping, adapting toilets;
iv furniture and fittings;
v operational costs—such as rent and rates, fuel and electricity and building maintenance where there has been new building or substantial adaptation.

3 Resources and equipment
i books and other printed resources, including tests;
ii educational equipment, including language masters and tape recorders;
iii adapted equipment as required for physical education, craft subjects, domestic science, science and music;
iv stationery and other consumable materials;
v handicap-specific items, including wheelchairs and other mobility aids, typewriters adapted as required, low vision aids, hearing aids.

4 Transport
This is a separate heading both because it is important in integration and because it is frequently problematic and in need of close scrutiny:
i to and from school, including escorts;
ii travel during school day, in split-sites or when schools are collaborating;
iii trips and extra-curricular activites.

5 Miscellaneous
This is for items of significant expenditure not covered elsewhere. Increases in school administration for instance may not be covered entirely under staff costs, and it may be necessary to include a figure for office costs.

Source: Hegarty and Pocklington, 1981, pp. 273–5.

Is integration a basic right?

2.19 Compared to some other countries there is a considerable reluctance in the UK to understand integration as being, in part, about the basic rights of the handicapped and their families to participate in their own communities. You may recall from Unit 10 that the principal components of American legislation were prescribed by the decisions of the Supreme Court, based on the constitutional rights of American citizens. These cases descended directly from the racial desegregation litigation in the early fifties. One of us (Tony Booth) recently visited Norway and was struck by the way the families of handicapped children have made their presence and wishes felt. In Norway, if a family requests that their handicapped child is educated in their local school then the local administration almost always accedes to their wishes. And it is not only the middle-class families who press for integrated schooling for their children. The father of one mentally handicapped child, integrated into his local school in a country district, was asked what he would like to see happen for the handicapped in the future. The interpreter translated: 'He says he would like to see them given the right to schooling in their community, the right to three years of post-compulsory schooling, the right to work training, the right to *real* work and the right to live independently from their families when they are old enough'.

How can you make up your mind?

2.20 We have emphasized that making up your mind about integration involves two lines of thought. First you have to decide about the *principle* of integration on the basis of the kind of schools you would like to see in our society. Do you think it desirable that children with differing abilities, backgrounds, disabilities and appearance should receive a common education, or do you think that some of them should be separately educated? If you think there are grounds for giving certain children an education separated from others, do you think that disability should be one of those grounds? This is the most important set of decisions you have to make about integration and they are essentially moral and political. Once you have decided where you stand on comprehensive education and selection by disability, then you can consider the practical possibility of implementing your desired goal. Can children with disabilities be included within ordinary schools? Can 'comprehensive' nursery, primary and secondary schools become schools for all?

2.21 We have mentioned examples of the practice of integration throughout this course, but we have not held up any of them as models of perfection. In examining an integration scheme it is always possible to ask: How can it be improved? How can the participation of the pupils be increased?

2.22 Arguments in favour of integration commonly meet with the response that ordinary schools should put their own house in order before they start to include others. In applying an integration principle, the inclusion of the whole community becomes part of the way in which ordinary schools can be improved. But of course schools are never going to achieve perfection. They will always be run by people who themselves have a range of capacities, interests and competencies, who are more (or less) committed to their pupils. Schooling will always take place in circumstances which are not under the control of educators and which present problems which cannot be solved by them. And this applies to any human system of education which we can devise. An integrated system will be no less variable and 'messy' than a segregated system. In deciding whether to help to promote an integrated system or not, you have to choose which messy, ordinary, human system you would prefer to see.

3 *The integrated school*

3.1 If all children are to become active participants in ordinary schools near their homes, whatever their disability or educational problems, what sort of schools will they need? In this section we shall explore the idea of the community school, providing an education geared to the needs and interests of all community members. Some villages may form natural communities, but can equal sense be made of the idea of community education in the large schools in multicultural areas of cities?

The village school

> Vertical grouping . . . mixed ages and abilities . . . these are not new ideas for the village school, but have always been part of its life . . . Our 'integration' does not have capital letters. The rural school is naturally integrated . . . The village school is not only for one class of person, not only for the bright or the average, the rich, the poor. Peartree School is for Peartree children.

3.2 These are the views of the headmistress of the small rural primary school described in Case study 40.

Reading Now read Case study 40, 'Integration in practice: a small rural primary school', by Patience Tuckwell.

Comment Peartree School is small, as is the community it serves. The school is the most important village institution, and the activities of school and village merge. The school is accessible

and is built near the community's centre. Arrangements which seem like novel manipulations in huge schools are just a natural way of life in the village school. On the other hand, life for the teachers is constrained by their small numbers and by the precarious future of the school.

It is important to note that a school accepting *all* children from its community still has only a *handful* of children who have marked learning difficulties. Such a school, however, offers just the regime that is claimed to be a central justification for segregated special education: small classes, individual teaching, individualized programmes of work.

The community school

3.3 What distinguishes a school as a 'community school'? For the pioneer of community education in England, Henry Morris, community schools were to be the saviours and revitalizers of rural life, the institutional core of the village, planted like marram grass to stem the tide of urban pollution and dehumanizing technology. Morris, Chief Education Officer of Cambridgeshire from 1922 to 1954, mourned the passing of the pre-industrial age and developed his plans for Cambridgeshire in the belief that education had the power to redirect people to their traditional, creative and fulfilling roots.

3.4 Unlike the headmistress of Peartree School, however, Henry Morris did *not* think that the small village school of around a hundred children or less was the natural ideal: it 'is not susceptible of organisation on any sound principle and the small numbers do not allow of the provision of staff, accommodation, and equipment, which make a wider curriculum possible. The small school is both inadequate and expensive' (Morris, 1956, reprinted 1980). Morris's aim was to group the villages into educational sectors, much as they are trying to do in Banbury and elsewhere in the 1980s, so that each senior school would be large enough for 'a class system . . . that will have regard to age and attainments', and would maintain close links with its own 'tributary' junior schools.

3.5 But his 'village college' was to be far more than a school:

> There must be a grouping and co-ordination of all the educational and social agencies which now exist in isolation in the countryside; an amalgamation which, while preserving the individuality and function of each, will assemble them into a whole and make possible their expression for the first time in a new institution, single but many-sided, for the countryside.
>
> (Morris, 1956, reprinted 1980)

3.6 Morris describes an ideal school as E-shaped, with school, adult activites and village hall occupying each of the three wings. The college would have: a nursery and infant welfare centre; a primary school for central village children; and a secondary school for children from central and tributary villages, which would have classrooms and a staffroom, as well as workshops, science laboratories and domestic studies rooms where adult evening classes would also take place. The village hall would be used by the school during the day for assembly, lunch, PE, plays, concerts; and in the evenings by village groups, exhibitions, travelling cinema, dances, lectures, public meetings. The public library would be there, to be used by every member of the community: 'schoolboys and girls, their older brothers and sisters, and their parents would freely pass to and fro between classroom or lecture-room or the demonstration plot and the library'. A room specially for agricultural education was also an essential feature of the college. Recreation grounds and swimming baths should be attached to the college, as should a 'choice of employment and juvenile unemployment insurance' office run by the LEA. Thus the college's premises would be used flexibly and intensively, day and night, by the entire community.

3.7 Participation in community education is, above all, active:

> The locality or neighbourhood in which we spend our daily lives and the local community to which we belong form the cell of society. It is of supreme importance that the neighbourhood should be full of life and vitality and have significance and meaning for all those who live in it. But vastly increased transport and opportunities for amusement have weakened the local group and its personal and corporate activities. This has happened as much in the cities as elsewhere. How is this vitality to be realized—this activity of body and mind, of

> emotion and feeling, both personally and in groups, that is the precious essence and core of culture at any level? It comes about when teacher and student, student and student, young and old meet face to face in lecture and debate, in song and dance; or in orchestras, choirs and plays. I have seen groups absorbed in workshops, laboratories, studios, libraries. And there are the virtues of eating and drinking together and conversation in the common room, and all that happens in games and on the playing fields and running track. A community that has these things enjoys the deepest satisfactions, which nothing can replace. It has an antidote to one of the greatest dangers to modern life, the pursuit of all kinds of passive mass amusements which kill time rather than recreate.
>
> (Morris, 1956, reprinted 1980, p. 16)

3.8 So are Morris's temples of demystified education an ideal to which all children may belong, whatever their disability? Can Morris's idea of a 'community' be pinned down? In his book *The Challenge for the Comprehensive School*, David Hargreaves argues that:

> the concept of the community school, like the concept of community itself, is a flabby and sometimes vacuous one . . . As yet we have no clear image of what a community school is . . . the community school is not a single and coherent reform but a constellation of reforms, some of which are in tension with one another.
>
> (Hargreaves, 1982)

An example of this tension is the dilemma faced by the staff of a school, anxious to be accountable to the community and for parents to extend their influence over the curriculum, who find that the community votes for a return to traditional subjects and high examination batting-averages: 'A community-centred curriculum is much more likely to be developed in a school where the head teachers and staff are committed to the notion but are highly insulated from relatively powerless and non-participating parents' (Hargreaves, 1982).

3.9 Community education may involve a number of reforms: first, the creation of a more democratic community within the school, and more power-sharing between teacher and taught; second, greater participation in the school by the outside community as governors, which, although recommended in the Taylor Report in 1977 (see *Glossary*) was not put fully into effect; third, the maximum use of the school as a community centre, which makes sound economic as well as social sense, and which could mean that one class contained both children and adults; fourth, the designing of a community-based curriculum. David Hargreaves elaborates on these four kinds of reform, which may be adopted in various forms, singly or together, and he says of the mixed age class: 'this aspect . . . I believe to be of far more importance than the use of shared facilities, for it can integrate sections of the community which are at present segregated' and thus promote a social solidarity which schools at present manifestly fail to do.

3.10 What would a school be like which enabled all local children to belong to it as equal members and to receive an education that meets their own particular needs, without labelling some as successes and others as failures? Teaching groups would be small, non-selective and frequently mixed in age, and would be welded together by interest rather than ability; timetables for students and staff would maximize opportunities for individualized work, utilizing the teachers' particular interests and keeping groups of students closely in touch with their pastoral tutors. These arrangements would entail team teaching and flexible blocks of lesson time.

3.11 A community school would be found in the centre of its town or village or of its defined catchment area such as a new estate. Inside the school there would be a whole range of children and adults, teachers and other professionals, school leavers, ancillary helpers, babies and parents. The school facilities would be virtually indistinguishable from those of the community, as studying, performing, sport and discussion would be taking place there during the day and evening, six or seven days a week, fifty-two weeks of the year.

3.12 Philip Toogood spent eight years at Swavesey, one of the Cambridgeshire village colleges, and he lists the range of activities of a single day:

> An English for adult immigrants class, an antenatal relaxation group for expectant mothers, infant welfare clinic, keep nimble session for the aged,

Community Service Interdisciplinary Support Group lunch, family planning clinic, three club groups, twelve LEA evening classes, a packed and sociable youth club attended by over 100, as well as all the normal functions of the secondary school, public library and extracurricular after school activities by the teachers.

(Toogood, 1980, p. 156)

Mixed ability teaching

3.13 Teachers who, like Henry Morris, are not convinced that mixed ability grouping is advantageous either to the pupils or to themselves, fear that the most and the least able will suffer as the lone teacher tends to direct the material towards the middling majority. But extending the range of ability within teaching groups to include either all the children of the same age from the same neighbourhood or the range of students, including adults, whose interests coincide, may imply that it is the system of organizing groups into classes with a single teacher that has to be modified or abandoned.

3.14 Table 4 summarizes the advantages and disadvantages of mixed ability teaching cited by teachers in a recent study (Reid *et al.*, 1981). Many of the disadvantages mentioned were the result of organizational features of the schools which had not been changed to accommodate the altered groupings. The current distribution and organization of resources in many schools make small-group and individual teaching a workaholic nightmare, and the four walls of the classroom a straitjacket. The advantages listed in Table 4, however, are of quite a different sort, neither administrative nor organizational; they are much more closely associated with the aims of education itself and with the job-satisfaction of the teacher. The ways in which teachers can work together may be crucial to the success of mixed ability teaching and it is significant that schools which have welcomed integration schemes, such as Marlborough School in Oxfordshire or the junior school in Reading 3.2, tend to be those where there is already an established commitment to mixed ability groupings and team teaching.

3.15 However, mixed ability teaching beyond the first couple of years at secondary school is rare. In Banbury School in north Oxfordshire, for example, mixed ability teaching is only the norm for the first year students, and its architecture does not facilitate regular sessions of team teaching. However, there are a number of ways in which teachers work together at this school to give each other confidence in teaching children with a wide range of ability. In the Scientific Studies Department, teachers can be timetabled to share one period a week with the Head of Department. When mixed ability teaching was first introduced, staff were consulted and had the option of remaining with selected groups which were retained for comparison, so that staff could gradually develop a voluntary commitment to mixed ability work. The Head of the Special Needs Department, Valerie Norman, a modern linguist, argues the pros and cons of mixed ability grouping:

> I was extremely interested in teaching mixed ability and I enjoyed it. I was forced to prepare much more carefully and as the pupils separated out in terms of achievement I was also forced to consider them as individuals. It brought home to me that this is something we should do with all classes, streamed or unstreamed, but the preparation involved is extensive . . .
>
> It is not possible to teach mixed-ability classes in pyramid subjects, e.g. maths and French, without a great deal of preparation and reserves of energy. There must also come a point in a class of average size when the top and bottom are so far apart that it is impossible to present them with the same general material. Mixed ability teaching is of undoubted value in eliminating problem classes and encouraging all pupils to feel part of the school community. I noticed that the number of pupils participating in extra-curricular activities, e.g. plays, concerts, sport, increased . . . Banbury school has retained some mixed ability work and has moved more towards setting.
>
> (Norman, 1979, p. 19)

So, mixed ability grouping may be seen as desirable but not easy to implement. Its introduction into Banbury School has not led to any widespread team teaching, although

Table 4 Advantages and disadvantages of mixed ability teaching.

A Advantages

Advantages not related to any specific ability group for pupils in a mixed ability class as identified by the teacher

Nature of pupil advantage	Percentage of teachers (N = 403)
Labelling avoided	36
Personal and social development fostered	33
Classroom climate improved	31
Improved motivation	22
Individual needs more effectively met	17
Improved behaviour	14
Improved attainment	13
Improved opportunities	12
'Real world' reflected	8
Transition to secondary school eased	6
General advantages	14

(The same teacher may be included in more than one category.)

Advantages for the teacher in a mixed ability class as identified by the teacher

Nature of teacher advantage	Percentage of teachers (N = 403)
Work satisfaction increased	35
Behaviour problems decreased	29
Pupil–teacher interaction improved	28
Teaching skills developed	15
New interest in subject aroused	8
Labelling of teachers avoided	5
Teacher–teacher interaction improved	5

(The same teacher may be included in more than one category.)

B Disadvantages

Teachers' perceptions of difficulties in teaching mixed ability classes

Nature of difficulty	Percentage of teachers (N = 403)
(a) *Difficulties related to classroom teaching*	
Meeting pupil needs (no ability group specified)	39
Increased preparation/marking	32
Increased need for resources	24
Demands on teacher expertise	18
Teacher stress/role uncertainty	14
Pacing work	11
Assessment	10
Classroom control	8
Teaching subject-related skills	6
(b) *Difficulties related to institutional factors*	
Class size too large	20
Design/deployment of buildings	17
Length of lesson unit	5
Timetable constraints	5
Insufficient money/equipment	5

(The same teacher may be included in more than one category.)

Source: Reid *et al.*, 1981.

it has stimulated an increase in regular staff meetings, discussions within the broad subject groups, and curriculum planning. Much of the teachers' preparatory work outside the classroom is now carried out in the context of active, supportive teamwork.

3.16 In an article on integration, John Sayer, Principal of Banbury School, describes two opposing responses to providing for children whose needs are not at the moment met in ordinary schools. One is the segregation route into special schooling, which he rejects because 'the education provided is often minimal and the stigma usually long-lasting'. The second response:

> is so to modify the ordinary groups and what happens in them that they can accommodate and provide for a wider range of needs than before . . . the major thrust is towards resource and support for teaching the whole group. The group may need re-thinking, re-siting, re-grouping, resourcing, reducing, re-timing, re-casting. It may need team teaching or a professional or ancillary support presence. It may need added preparation and follow-up . . . I have little doubt that the second should be our ultimate goal wherever possible . . . Every teacher a teacher for special needs is, after all, our everyday reality.
>
> (Sayer, 1981)

3.17 Organizational features of schools thus reflect moral decisions about what the most desirable sort of education system would look like and cannot be regarded as neutral administrative tinkerings.

3.18 One teacher has written that 'the idea of a streamed comprehensive school is a contradiction in terms' (Kelly, 1980). However, the external constraints of competitive examinations and their presumed relationship to the job market encourage schools to stream children into supposedly homogeneous groups. Inasmuch as the examination system is the enemy of comprehensivization, it is also the enemy of the process of integrating more children with special needs into ordinary schools. Examinations keep a tight grip on a low (and therefore to be more prized?) rate of educational success.

Organizing the curriculum

3.19 A community school with mixed ability groupings will have to question traditional subject boundaries because retaining them imposes severe constraints on flexibility of presentation and study. But David Hargreaves fears that a community orientation in school curricula is too often reserved for groups which do not succeed at academic subjects, and that community studies becomes a second-class diet for second-class consumers (Hargreaves, 1982). To prevent this, Hargreaves proposes 'that all secondary schools should have a central, core curriculum . . . which should be organized around community studies and the expressive arts'. To avoid the parochialism which he believes to be a serious fault in Henry Morris's ideal of community education as rural regeneration, Hargreaves advocates the curriculum outlined by Raymond Williams twenty years ago. This includes law, politics, psychology, sociology, drama, architecture and the mass media, as well as science, history and languages. There is no shortage of imaginative and flexible designs for curricula relevant to the needs and interests of all children, but they frequently involve material not currently accepted as suitable for schools, or for all pupils.

3.20 Currently, the core curriculum is interpreted in several different ways. It may consist only of 'academic' subjects; it may consist of literacy and numeracy studies, supplemented by vaguely defined 'community' project work, and become the staple diet only of the least able pupils; or it may consist of a whole range of traditional, basic creative and contemporary subjects within which pupils of all abilities can find possible options. But only a core curriculum which can guarantee a wide range of opportunities for every student will enable all children to participate in the life of the school, thus reducing the segregation of pupils who have learning difficulties or who are estranged from the current curricula in ordinary schools.

Discipline

3.21 A serious problem faced by comprehensive schools, which Tony Booth discusses in Unit 13, is that of the alienation of what may be a majority of students in the later years of compulsory schooling. Disciplining these pupils can take up more professional time than writing a new curriculum that they would find more purposeful. Are discipline and education mutually exclusive, the one taking over when the other is absent? Is discipline, in the sense of self-control, achieved through education and personal involvement in learning tasks? Discipline in the sense of being forced to keep institutional rules or else suffer pain or deprivation usually operates in an anti-educational way, as a punishment for the undeserving, and is used to preserve hierarchical social relations in a school:

> Obedience should be a social courtesy. Adults have no right to the obedience of children. It must come from within—not imposed from without.
>
> Discipline is a means to an end. The discipline of an army is aimed at making for efficiency in fighting. All such discipline subordinates the individual to the cause. In disciplined countries life is cheap.
>
> There is, however, another discipline. In an orchestra, the first violinist obeys the conductor because he is as keen on a good performance as the conductor is. The private who jumps to attention does not, as a rule, care about the efficiency of the army . . . the soldier knows that if he disobeys he will be punished. School discipline may be of the orchestra type when teachers are good. Too often it is of the army type.
>
> (Neill, 1968, p. 144)

3.22 The need for discipline as an external control system may well decline with the extension of mixed ability groups:

> As in other studies, advantages which may broadly be described as 'social' emerged as the major positive outcomes of mixed ability classes, and teachers here drew attention to pupils' personal development, the improved classroom atmosphere and increased co-operation among pupils and between pupils and teachers, with an accompanying decrease in disruptive behaviour.
>
> (Reid *et al.*, 1981)

But, just when it may be particularly desirable to reinforce this cooperation, selection of children to take (or not take) examinations occurs; while a few groups may receive an education, many may end up with just discipline.

A community school in operation: Sutton Centre

3.23 Sutton Centre in North Nottinghamshire is one of the very few secondary schools which have succeeded in incorporating many of the physical features of an integrated school. It opened in 1973, the outcome of eight years' planning by Nottinghamshire's director of education and its county architect, Henry Swain. The centre reflects an unusual attempt to unite school and community planning. It is sited alongside Sutton-in-Ashfield's new shopping precinct and is part of an urban redevelopment which includes a health centre, old people's flats, a public library, a civic hall, a swimming pool and a bus station.

3.24 A leaflet for teachers applying to work at Sutton Centre sets education in its context: 'It is fundamental to the concept of the Centre that there should not be an identifiable school section, but that the barriers between school, adult education, youth service, provision for the elderly and handicapped, should be removed'.

3.25 Sutton Centre now has almost 1,400 pupils aged 11–18, from a clearly defined, fairly small catchment area, plus those involved with the range of its constituent provisions: adult education (WEA; adult literacy; university extension classes); youth and community services; careers advisory service; the social services day centre and administrative offices; the probation service; Ashfield registrar; a creche; a teachers' centre; a Physically Handicapped and Able Bodied (PHAB) Club; and shared recreational and sports facilities which include a theatre, sports hall, bowls hall, ice rink, squash courts and bars. The school has priority use of some of these between nine and five, but other facilities, like the bowls hall, are designed for public use. Unemployed school leavers can use the sports hall in the afternoons. Sutton Centre is surprisingly compact, given the number and variety of activities provided, and all areas are accessible by ramps and lifts. It is open every evening, at weekends and during the school holidays.

3.26 A leaflet for visitors to the Centre outlines the character of the school in the following way: 'It takes what is best from the primary sector of education with regard to classroom management and group work, and also what is best in adult education/FE, with regard to adult relationships with its students'.

3.27 The teaching groups at Sutton Centre are small, stable and mixed ability. Tom King, the headmaster (and an Open University graduate), argues that mixed ability grouping 'is the only viable system of organization' for a community-minded comprehensive school 'with its emphasis on individuals and its freedom from the classical stigmas

associated with school learning' (King, 1982). All pupils therefore follow a common curriculum in non-streamed groups for the first five years, with options in the fourth and fifth year for extra work in a favourite or a new subject. The architecture of the centre makes the team teaching of mixed ability groups both possible and successful, with its combination of open plan spaces, traditional classrooms and open specialist areas for practical work. By working within eye-shot of each other teachers can be used more efficiently:

> These teaching areas considerably ease the management problem of placing staff. If, for example, whilst studying general science, a biologist, a chemist and a physicist are all working within sight of one another and thereby providing a service of expertise to all classes in the teaching groups simultaneously, then all the pupils benefit. But, just as importantly, staff, too, benefit in a type of intrinsic in-service training by learning from one another. The older, more experienced teacher can assist the new teacher whilst, at the very least, the new teacher may well be able to show the older colleague a new approach to a pedagogical problem.
> (King, 1982)

3.28 The teaching group is also the tutor group and there are about twenty-four pupils in each group. These groups stay together for the five years of compulsory schooling, and the tutor records both academic progress and pastoral care. Every teacher has pastoral duties, which begin with a home visit before the pupil comes to the centre. Tutors spend half an hour each morning with their group, eat their lunch with those of the group who remain at the centre, and teach their tutor group for their own particular subject. Group numbers are kept down and contact with teachers kept up to 90 per cent of the school day by a reduction in break time for the pupils and in free periods for the staff. During lesson time the staffroom is usually full of pupils working in small, informal groups.

3.29 There are twelve curriculum departments: sports and leisure, environmental studies, personal relationships and community service, European studies, English and drama, creative arts, music, technical studies, home management, science, mathematics, and basic educational skills. Each department (except music) is awarded the same number of points on the Burnham Scale (see Figure 1).

3.30 The timetable is impressively simple. There are morning and afternoon sessions, each lasting 2½ hours, and a 2-hour evening session. All pupils attend for eleven sessions a week—see Figure 2 for a sample first year timetable. Extended teaching periods eliminate time wasted moving around the centre, encourage adults to participate for a worthwhile period, and enable pupils to become absorbed in their activities. There are no lesson bells and no formal recreation periods. The teacher decides when the group should have a break and they spend it together at the nearest of the centre's twelve coffee bars. Teaching revolves around plans for individualized learning. Homework can be done at home or during the 'eleventh session' on one evening a week. These sessions are 6.30–8.30 pm and teachers work at least one evening session a week, with time off in lieu. So, although a great deal is demanded of teachers in terms of their sustained commitment to the ideal of genuinely comprehensive education, there are compensations in the form of guaranteed small teaching groups, part of a weekday off, and a far higher proportion of interested pupils than usual, of whom many are adults.

3.31 Anyone can attend Sutton Centre's evening sessions, so that children, their parents, staff, disabled people, OAPs or anyone else can be mixed up together. Workshop sessions in technical studies, for example, also encourage groups of adults to attend on Wednesday and Saturday mornings, and they are welcome on an individual basis at any other time on a 'pay as you learn' scheme. The home management department encourages people with disabilities to join its classes. Pupils' experiences of life at Sutton Centre thus daily consist of learning, eating and relaxing with a whole variety of people from the locality.

3.32 There is no uniform at Sutton Centre, no regular lock-out of children into a playground at lunch-time, no corporal punishment and no detentions. Sanctions consist of exclusion from a lesson, an 'on report' check with a pupil's tutor or a 'report' system with the head. It is extremely rare for a pupil to be referred out of the Centre because

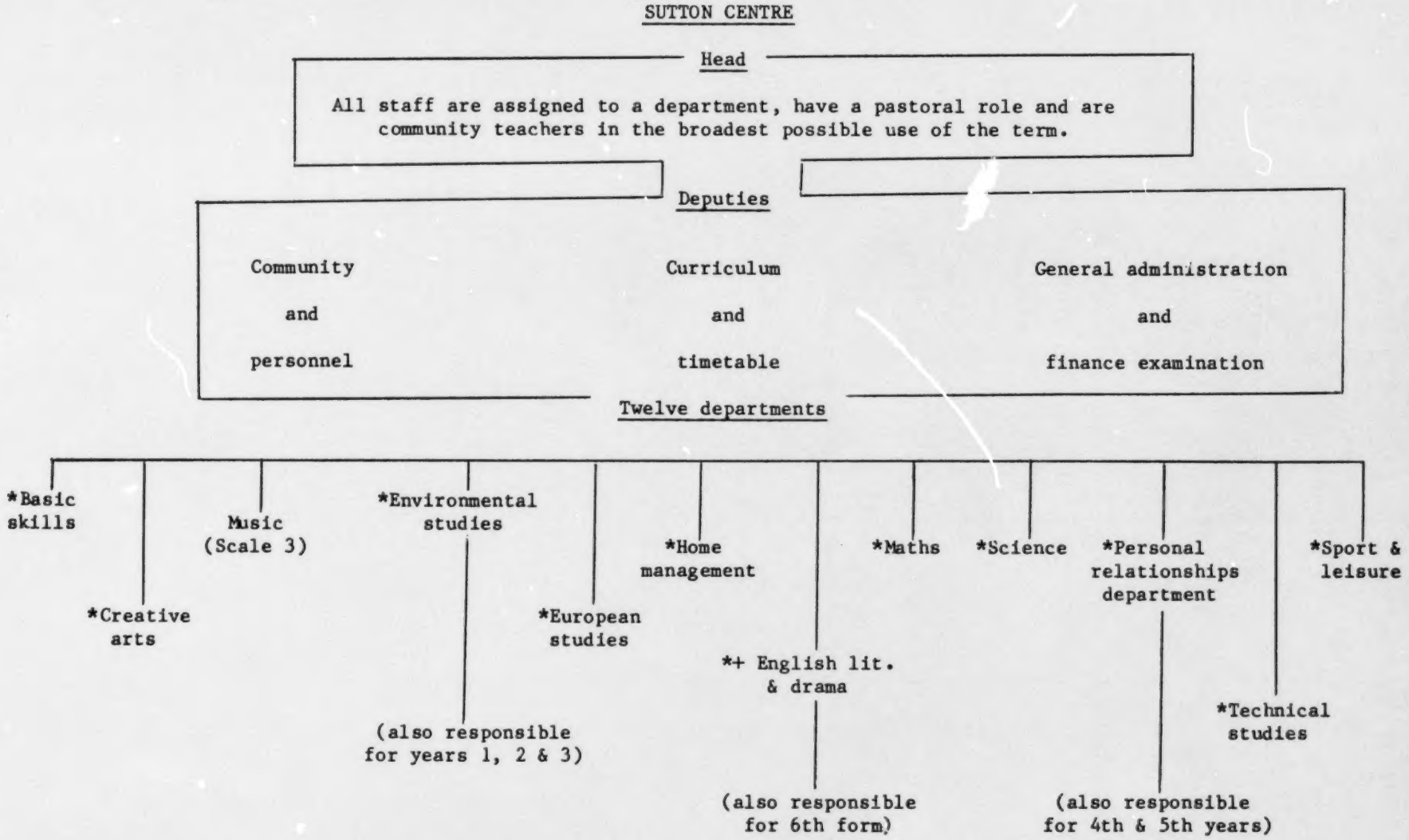

Figure 1 The administrative organization of Sutton Centre.

*Scale 4

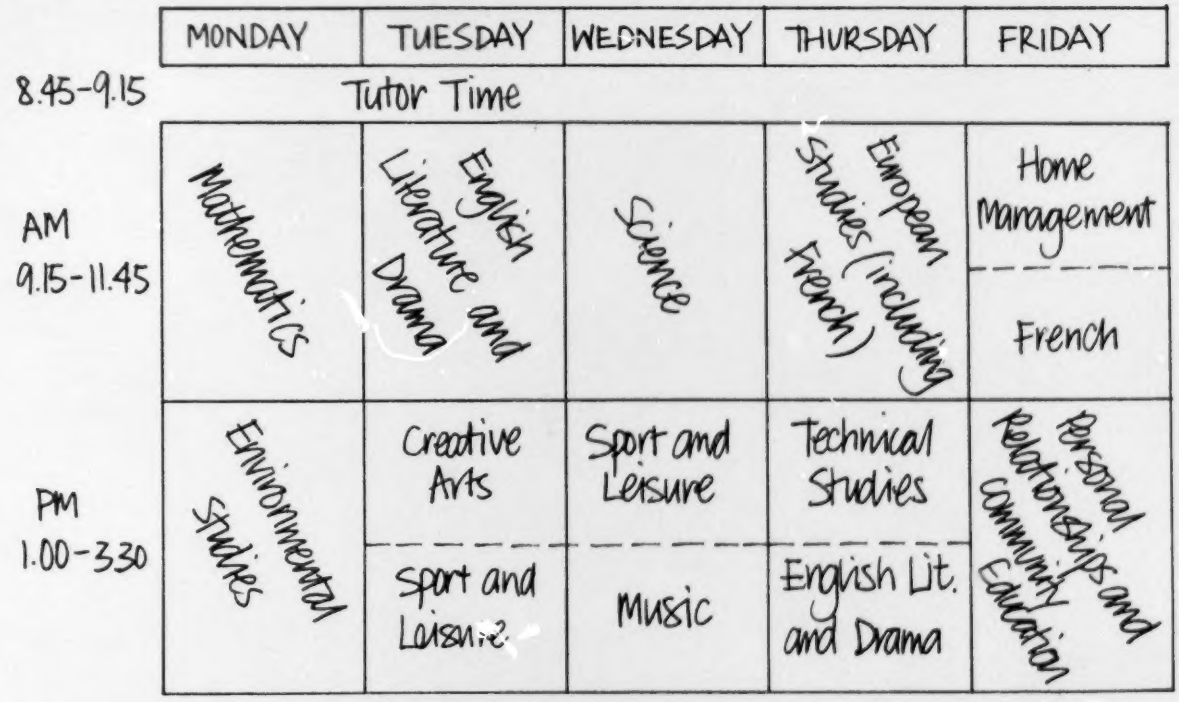

Figure 2 Sample timetable for a first year pupil at Sutton Centre.

of difficult or violent behaviour, but it does happen. When other agencies need to become involved, however, they are to be found just up the corridor, and pupils can also refer themselves privately, or go to see a social worker or probation officer with a minimum of publicity.

3.33 Sutton Centre has redefined school 'success' in such a way as to include, rather than exclude, as many children as possible, and on all possible occasions. This is helped by children and their parents being given a say both in the administration of the Centre and in the reports which get written about the children. Sutton Centre staff believe:

> that no single examination, whether it be CSE/CEE/O level/A level—gives nearly enough information about a pupil and his capabilities. It is for this reason that we have developed the Pupil Profile. The Profile is a formal communication to child, parent and teachers. The pupils write first, the teacher writes secondly and then it is taken home for parents to comment. This will be the yardstick by which the pupil can measure him/herself. It will be the document which gives a comprehensive account of a pupil's activities inside and outside the Centre, which encourages him to have a positive approach to his own personal development and which gives details of attainment, in all areas of the curriculum. The pupil himself is responsible for the entries in several areas of the Profile such as those which deal with activities inside and outside the Centre and attendance and which form in fact a record of personal achievement. We believe it is right that the pupil should be encouraged to assess himself in this way and that this positive approach will be reflected in his own attitude to the Profile and to the education service we are providing in Sutton Centre.
>
> (King, 1982)

3.34 Criticism at Sutton Centre can pass upwards as well as downwards and the daily channels of communication are open and informal. The head's study door is propped open with a book and he does not have any warning traffic lights. Tom King believes that the head should always be available to any member of the community and so be aware of what is going on. But because it is a large community, and especially if contact is to be informal, democratic and frequent, there have to be separate forums for staff, pupils, parents and the community. Pupils have a voice in their tutor group, their own school council which meets weekly, and in the Centre's governing body. All parents are members of the PTA.

3.35 Sutton Centre therefore acknowledges that all who attend are equal members of the community and that they all should have a say in the kind of education that they receive. However, Sutton Centre also tries to operate as an equitable system, in which there may be positive discrimination in favour of those with the greatest needs. But the fundamental openness of architecture, teaching groups, timetabling and use of resources should enable a community education centre like this to do the best by all its students.

3.36 So how do they cope with special educational needs at Sutton Centre? There are not many child students who are obviously disabled, despite the fact that the Centre is ready for them, with lifts, ancillary helpers, small classes, stable adult relationships and so on. Disabled adults and physically and mentally handicapped teenagers and young people attend the Centre and so are a part of everyone's common experience, so why is there not a greater degree of integration for schoolwork?

3.37 On the other hand, of course, Sutton Centre does not create many of the problems associated with large, urban comprehensives. Many children who in other places would undoubtedly be in schools for the 'maladjusted' or for children with learning difficulties, or in units for disruptive children, do not become difficult or dissatisfied at Sutton Centre. This is because there is something in the curriculum for them, a minimum of insidious comparison with academically able students, and a framework of familiar adults (both teachers and fellow pupils) for support.

3.38 In spite of all their obvious advantages of simple organization, varied personnel and flexibility of administration, community schools are still few in number. Here we have an informal, genuinely comprehensive and imaginative kind of educational institution, but Sutton Centre is not yet being used to integrate all children with disabilities. Children who would otherwise be categorized as 'having difficulties' or as 'remedial' do now enjoy a decategorized membership of the more community-minded secondary schools, but, overall, there are few attempts to take up the challenge of integration and enhance the participation of all pupils in their local schools and their communities.

4 *Planning integration*

4.1 Although the creation of community schools may be the ultimate aim of integration, any plan for integration has to start with schools as they are. In this section we will look at the possibilities for planning integration nationally, within LEAs and within schools.

Creating national policy

4.2 Several local education authorities would claim to be pursuing a policy of integration, but very few have instituted definite plans to decrease the segregation of children or to reform the organization and curricula of comprehensive primary and secondary schools. As the statistics for England and Wales testify, there has not been an overall reduction of segregated provision over the last few years and indeed there has been a considerable increase in the last twenty years. Children with sensory handicaps have been the only exception to these trends, although even in the case of children with sight problems the reduction may reflect a drop in incidence rather than increased integration (Low, 1983).

4.3 Unit 14 and Television programme 7 describe attempts to develop policies for pupils with learning difficulties in Scotland and how these were being put into effect, particularly in the Grampian region. Such a co-ordinated policy for increasing the participation of pupils in their schools offers an exciting way of making schools ready to receive a wider group of children. However, the developments in Scotland have not been linked directly to plans to reduce the segregation of handicapped children, though in Grampian they may be in the future. At present this region contains Ellon Academy, a comprehensive school with a cluster of classes for severely and profoundly mentally

handicapped children within it, but blind children are still sent from Grampian to a residential school in Edinburgh from the age of four.

4.4 The creation of active policy depends on knowledge and power (see Unit 10, section 5). In order to shape special educational practice we must know what is going on at present and have a clear idea of the effects of our initiatives. We need the power to control practice in a desired direction. But the dilemma and contradiction of policy-making are that major shifts in policy involve a change in the distribution of power. Whether the integration of the handicapped involves a minor readjustment or a major realignment of the 'powers that be' depends on what we mean by integration.

4.5 In a decentralized education system the difficulty of exerting control over what takes place in individual schools or classrooms may reduce an apparently powerful directive to words on a piece of paper. When Tony Booth was in Norway, he was surprised at how, even in a supposedly centralized system, efforts towards integration varied considerably from area to area and were highly dependent on the views of local administrators and teachers (see Television programme 5). Some teachers in Norway are resisting the introduction of handicapped pupils into ordinary schools and, judging by the NUT discussion documents on this subject, one might suspect a general reluctance among teachers in the UK, though it is clear that where handicapped children *are* included in ordinary schools teachers generally regard that school as appropriate (Hegarty and Pocklington, 1981).

The 1981 Education Acts

4.6 In the present situation, where moves towards integration encounter strong opposing forces, it is difficult to imagine *real* integration proceeding very far without initiatives at national as well as local authority level.

4.7 There are a number of aspects of the 1981 Act in England and Wales which could be used to promote integration. Section 2(1) specifies that ordinary primary and secondary schools must make provision for those children with special educational needs, and 2(5) states that it is the duty of governors to ensure that they do. The legal basis for special support within the ordinary schools is spelt out, therefore, and schools must make a degree of provision for children with special needs, which could be extended to include those with more serious learning difficulties. The latter children, who might be the subject of official 'statements' under the Act (see para. 4.42), also have to be included in ordinary schools unless this is not practicable, interferes with the education of other children or is not financially viable. But the law gives no indication of the number of these exceptions. Are they to be greater or fewer in number than those currently educated in special schools? The 1981 Education Act in Scotland, which requires 'records' rather than 'statements' to be kept for some children, appears to have virtually no implications for integration reforms. It includes a section about parental choice of schools which contains so many let-out clauses as to provide no leverage to parents wishing a child experiencing educational difficulties to attend or remain at an ordinary school.

4.8 Our own preference would have been for more precise legislation in the UK which came somewhere between the 1981 Act and Public Law 94–142 in the USA (see Unit 10). But there is still scope for responding to the existing law in a new and positive way.

4.9 We tend to think of educational legislation in the United Kingdom as having little to do with courts of law. When parents feel that their children are not given an appropriate education as specified in the 1944 Education Act, they sometimes complain informally and may often feel considerable frustration, but they almost never go to court. It might make a major difference to the effects of education legislation if people treated it as if it were enforceable by the courts.

4.10 The three conditions placed on integration in the 1981 Act in England and Wales can be phrased as questions: Under what circumstances is attendance at an ordinary school incompatible with a child receiving the education he or she requires? Under what circumstances is attendance of a child at an ordinary school incompatible with the appropriate education of other children? Under what circumstances is attendance of a child at an ordinary school incompatible with the efficient use of resources? The answers to these questions could, in theory, be legally defined.

4.11 Our legal system is based on case law—the idea that cases which are similar in essential respects can be compared. If we can point to an example where one group of handicapped children is educated effectively in ordinary schools by one local authority, we can then assert, legitimately, that similar children in similar circumstances must be so educated by another authority if it is to remain within the law. Actual examples of the practice of integration could play an important part in understanding the legal implications of the 1981 Act in England and Wales.

4.12 Hegarty and Pocklington (1981) come to the following conclusion:

> The resounding conclusion to emerge from this study is that integration is possible. Special educational needs can be met in the ordinary school, and to a far greater extent than is currently the practice . . . As long as some pupils attend special schools when their peers with comparable special needs elsewhere receive satisfactory education in ordinary schools, there are grounds for disquiet.
>
> (Hegarty and Pocklington, 1981, p. 507)

Is this evidence that under the 1981 Education Act some local authorities are in breach of the law?

4.13 People commonly argue against the reinclusion of slow learning children in ordinary schools because they would not be provided with an education matched to their abilities. That, after all, was the reason for their exclusion. Now, it will always be possible for any school, special or ordinary, to provide a child with an inappropriate education. But before children can be excluded from an ordinary school, the law requires that they should have a problem that is *incompatible with* their appropriate education there. When a child with special needs is not receiving an appropriate education in the ordinary schools, *it is the duty of the LEA to make that ordinary school education appropriate.*

4.14 At present, plans for integration may founder because the only choices are between attendance at an ordinary school with minimal support and attendance at a special school. Before an LEA states that a child's attendance at an ordinary school is incompatible with the provision of an efficient education, it should have done everything possible to adapt the school to the child's needs. This should entail changing the rules governing the separate resourcing of special education, so that support staff and special education money can actually be delivered to ordinary schools.

4.15 However, while it is possible that the 1981 Act could be made to have precise effects in relation to integration, it is unlikely that if a momentum builds up towards an integrated system it will be because of the Act. You may recall from the reading which is associated with Unit 1/2 that the White Paper preceding the Act was actually trying to reduce the push towards integration in Section 10 of the 1976 Act which the Conservative Government repealed. Cynicism about the relevance of legislation to educational practice was fuelled by the fact that the wording of the 1981 Act reproduces in virtually identical terms the 'offending' Section 10. If there had been a definite intention for the Act to promote integration (and certainly there was not in the minds of those who wrote it), then its wording would have been far more precise. The evidence to date is that the Act does have precise implications for the production of written assessments for a small group of children but that LEA officials see it as irrelevant to whether they plan for integration. Nor is there anything within the circular which comes into operation on 1 April 1983 to imply that the DES is encouraging an interpretation of the Act which promotes integration.

The production of LEA plans

4.16 If an LEA is to claim that there is effective public participation in its policy-making, then it must at least publish its plans annually so that the whole community knows what is happening. If people do not know what the plans are, how can they help to implement them?

4.17 An LEA integration plan could be expected to have three major elements: a detailed description of all existing special education provision both inside and outside

ordinary schools; a general description of changes planned over a five year period, and a detailed description of the changes planned in the following year. Such plans should reflect the abolition of distinctions between 'remedial' and 'special', and should not omit the 'disaffected' or any other group of pupils who are excluded at present. They should link all developments in special education to the implementation of a comprehensive education system; however, the very existence of separate plans would perpetuate a distinction between special and ordinary education—and that is a paradox of moves towards integration. If a philosophy of integration gains ground, then ultimately there may be no need for separate special educational plans.

The creation of policy areas

4.18 An LEA is too large an administrative unit to facilitate the participation of teachers and communities in policy development; conversely, the school is too narrow a unit, partly because the needs of children must be seen as a whole as they progress through the education system and partly because the needs of children who are not within ordinary schools at present must also be considered. In Grampian they have grouped secondary schools and their feeder primaries, and in Oxfordshire they are beginning moves towards a federal structure linking a group of primary and secondary schools together. But if all the support from health, education and social services is to be linked, then the policy area has to be a community of people rather than particular schools—like the parish used to be in some respects, or like the commune is in present-day Norway. Special schools and separate units might be attached to particular policy areas. Such an arrangement would involve a degree of administrative amalgamation with the ordinary schools and facilitate a movement of teachers and students and a sharing of expertise and curricula. Policy teams are being developed in parts of Oxfordshire and exist for remedial services in Grampian. However, there is a definite danger that reforms with a power base in the secondary schools, or in any other sector of education, may produce changes which are unduly influenced by the current organization and curricula of that sector.

4.19 Each policy team would develop its own agenda, but there are several issues which would be common to most teams:

1 curriculum and staff development in relation to children with special needs in the schools;

2 involving parents and community in the schools;

3 co-ordinating support services for children with special needs;

4 arranging and supporting the transfer of children, staff and resources from special to ordinary schools;

5 providing access to the schools for children and adults, including educational employees;

6 developing resource bases in the school.

Reading Now read Case study 51, 'Some aspects of special education in Oxfordshire: innovation and change'.

As you read through the case study, you should consider how a plan for increasing integration in a local education authority might be produced. What else would you need to know about provision in Oxfordshire before you could write a plan for that county?

Comment (a) The documents quoted in the case study do not constitute a coherent plan for the integration of children with special needs. There appears to be some measure of agreement on the direction of change, at least among those with power over special educational policy who are working outside the schools, although information about that is limited. The case study does raise a range of ideas which might be useful in developing such a plan:

(i) providing resource bases in selected schools;

(ii) breaking down the LEA into school sectors;

(iii) bringing peripatetic staff into a closer relationship with the schools;

(iv) breaking down barriers between remedial and special education;

(v) co-ordinating educational, social and medical services;

(vi) providing in-service training for teachers;

(vii) extending the roles of remedial or special needs teachers in the ordinary schools, as at Carterton School (cf. Grampian in Unit 14);

(viii) deliberately attempting to foster the participation of handicapped children within the school, as at Bicester;

(ix) paying special allowances—and should they be for qualifications or experience rather than for teaching a particular category of child?

(b) Any case study presents a snapshot. Since this case study was completed the impetus to develop a co-ordinated special education policy in Oxfordshire appears to have lessened. There has been, however, a very interesting and encouraging development between Ormerod School, for physically handicapped pupils, and a nearby comprehensive, Marlborough School. The two schools, with the support of the chief education officer, have moved a group of children and their teacher across into the comprehensive school. The children will remain on the roll of the special school because at present this appears to be the only way to safeguard their resources!

Transforming special schools

4.20 There are a range of possible arrangements for allocating children and resources to special and ordinary schools:

1 Exchange of resources and expertise between special and ordinary school;

2 co-ordinating curricula and resources;

3 part-time transfer for some children;

4 full-time transfer for some children;

5 full-time transfer for all children.

A few special schools have reached level 4 in this list; examples include Ormerod School in Oxfordshire, mentioned in Case study 51. A second school in Oxfordshire, an ESN(S) school, has now transferred two classes to a neighbouring primary school. There is a parallel process of transferring resources in the form of staff and materials from special to ordinary school. Transferring children without transferring resources would inhibit successful integration, and the spare facilities would soon attract new clients to the special school.

4.21 If the overall policy objective in an LEA is to move most or all children to ordinary schools, then all initial links between schools will be seen as the first steps in the process of integration. If there is no overall policy for integration, moves to bring special and ordinary schools closer may have a different meaning and different consequences. For example, where a special school supports local ordinary schools by sending out staff on a part-time basis to advise on children with learning difficulties, this can either maintain more children within the ordinary school system (see Case study 45, on Westhall School) or guarantee a continued flow of referrals of children to the special school. Carol Goodwin (1983) has suggested that the support teacher service in Sheffield may have just this result. Bringing special and ordinary schools closer together can be a survival tactic for a special school, or a self-denying ordinance in which the special school tries to put itself out of business.

4.22 Similarly, links between special and ordinary schools can be mere window-dressing. A special school may satisfy local demands for integration by sending some of its more able pupils to an ordinary school for some lessons. By this means, the school appears to be committed to integration but at the same time preserves segregation for most of its pupils.

Integration at primary school

Bishopswood School in South Oxfordshire is for children with severe learning difficulties. Recently two groups of pupils, infant and junior, have transferred their base to a nearby primary, Sonning Common. A third group will be based in a neighbouring comprehensive school from September 1983. The children have their own home base but mix with others at lunch, playtime and for some lessons. Bishopswood itself takes pupils who live at home, in hostels and in mental handicap hospitals.

Sonning Common Primary School

Playing together.

Jane joins a mainstream lesson.

Eating together.

Using the swimming pool.

Language work in the home base.

Bishopswood Special School

Children who will move to the comprehensive, with helpers from the same school.

As the school changes, who will be left behind? How could these children be integrated?

Special schools as resource centres

4.23 As the numbers of children within some special schools fall, either because of falling rolls or because children have been transferred from them, a number of suggestions have been made about changes in the use of the spare accommodation. It has been suggested that they are used as small ordinary schools, perhaps offering an 'alternative' education. One of the most popular suggestions, particularly within the special education system, has been that they become resource centres housing people and materials and possibly some children not regarded as appropriate candidates for integration.

4.24 Blanche Neville School in Haringey, one of the schools described in *Integration in Action* (Hegarty and Pocklington, 1982), exists only as a building which houses a resource centre and staff. Its former pupils, whose hearing is impaired, are dispersed throughout the authority's area in a number of special departments, and twelve children are individually integrated with help from specialist teachers of the deaf who support them in ordinary classes as well as withdrawing them for speech and language work. Neither the head of Blanche Neville School nor Dr Darcy Dale (who helped establish this integration scheme) justified the scheme on the grounds of the social benefits it would bring. Instead, they argued that the principal benefits would come from the children's exposure to a normal environment which would assist their language development, and from exposure to higher expectations which would help their academic development. Despite the controversial nature of the move, which isolated hearing impaired pupils from all contact with a community using sign language, the change was surprisingly successful:

> It was believed that the pupils with impaired hearing would be stimulated by the 'more businesslike, more brisk' working environment of the mainstream, would be initially 'shocked by the work rate'. Also ordinary teachers would not hold 'too low a goal' for deaf pupils, unlike some of their special school colleagues who were perceived as 'conditioned' by their experiences within the special school. The head teacher himself acknowledged that he had had to revise upwards his expectations of what hearing impaired pupils could achieve as a result of the progress made by those in the individual integration programme; some were successfully tackling work that he would never have thought of setting for them.
>
> (Hegarty and Pocklington, 1982, p. 185)

4.25 But if a group of staff are to retain a base outside the ordinary school system while providing support within it, some way has to be found to ensure that their knowledge of each of the ordinary schools is sufficient to enable them to make an adequate contribution. In Oxfordshire there has been a suggestion that peripatetic support be reduced to a minimum and that, whenever possible, support staff be allocated to a 'sector' of schools and based within one of them.

Adapting ordinary schools

4.26 In adapting ordinary schools to enable more children to have a greater degree of participation in them, there are a number of possibilities you might consider:

Should some resources be centralized? If so, how should centralized resources be established and organized?

How might a resource base contribute to the development of the whole school?

How should the participation of children be promoted?

What features of a special curriculum should be retained?

To what extent should one construct individual plans?

What should be the nature of specialist support and how should it be delivered?

Centralizing resources?

As the number attending special schools is reduced, we shall not need an exactly corresponding increase in centralized provision in ordinary schools. As fewer children are excluded from ordinary schools, more children with disabilities will be incorporated within the support structures of their local schools. Not only do we need to create a flow

of children from special schools to ordinary schools, but also from self-contained units into ordinary classes and from centralized provision into neighbourhood schools. This process has to be actively pursued, for integration—like the ending of racial discrimination within schools—does not happen by itself. In the north east of England, a group of children who live in a subnormality hospital go to a school in an 'annexe' of a local primary school. The accommodation is two large rooms in what used to be the infant department of a primary school. Next to these rooms is a large hall which would be invaluable for the physiotherapy that many of these multiply handicapped children need, yet they are denied access to it because the head does not consider the annexe to be a part of his school.

Resource bases or units?

4.28 A new language game has been introduced into special education: 'units' are out, 'resource bases' or 'resource rooms' are in. Unit 10 and Case study 51 describe the emergence of this new terminology but the important distinctions are those of practice rather than words. The use of 'resource base' is meant to signal a break away from the 'special school within the ordinary school' which characterizes many self-contained special classes. Such classes contain pupils who are seen as outside the mainstream of school activities and who are the sole responsibility of specialist staff who themselves 'belong' to a wider group of special educators outside the school. We favour the idea of resource bases within schools but not just as a feature of *special* education. All schools need a focus for developing differentiated curricula and teaching methods, as well as a flexibility of grouping and additional support for some pupils. Children with disabilities should be fitted into this framework of *ordinary* support.

Planning a resource base

4.29 How should a centralized resource base be planned? Unit 10 contains a description of the transfer of special provision from a special school to form a resource area in a neighbouring school in Madison, Wisconsin. Case study 47 depicts the establishment of a new school with provision for children with physical disabilities and hearing impairments. Among the considerations that must be borne in mind are the following:

(a) adequate preparation of staff, parents and pupils in both the ordinary and the special school;

(b) selection of a school in which the attitudes of head and staff are favourable or become favourable after consultation and in-service training;

(c) selection of a school which can adapt the curriculum to differences in pupils;

(d) the resource base must be continually re-evaluated to prevent the emergence of a closed special class within the ordinary school.

When staff, parents and pupils feel involved in a new development, are given sufficient information and have opportunities for discussion, then a change may take place smoothly. Given the fundamental importance and simplicity of such criteria, it is remarkable that new provision has been established in some schools without any of these conditions being met.

4.30 At present, resource bases are often created for specific categories of students, for example blind or physically disabled. The positive feature of the notion of 'special educational need' was the attempt to break away from such categorization. Children with physical disabilities may have very little in common apart from their label. Many of the current features of segregated education that are preserved in integration schemes may be seen as temporary measures on the route to a more fully integrated system.

Reading Now read 'A junior school resource area for the visually impaired' by Seamus Hegarty and Keith Pocklington (Reading 3.2 in the Reader). This reading presents a detailed picture of the development of one resource area from a relatively segregated department to one supporting children in the mainstream.

Comment (a) The head teacher played a very important part in establishing this resource base, although as long as the teacher in charge of the resource centre opposed her ideas their implementation was limited. The attitudes of staff in both resource base/unit and mainstream school influenced the extent of integration.

(b) Much effort was devoted to preparing staff, children and parents of the school for the setting up of the resource centre. This preparation was only the first step in the process of educating other people about disability, which is one aim of integration.

(c) Setting up new provision takes time and it is unreasonable to expect everything to go well from the start. Even after the first major change of direction, the school's organization was sufficiently flexible to allow for changes in the provision, such as the establishment of a resource team, the production of 'educational guidelines' and the setting up termly assessment meetings.

(d) The early resistance to integration came not from mainstream teachers but from the specialist teacher.

(e) The visually impaired children are all based in mainstream classes and are segregated only when they cannot be supported in the ordinary classroom. With the dispersal of the resource team to the mainstream, the whole school works to minimize the need for withdrawal.

(f) With an eventual complement of 20 children, the resource centre will be staffed to levels close to staff–pupil ratios in special schools for the visually impaired. In 1979 the staff–pupil ratio for schools for the blind was one teacher for 5.4 pupils, and for schools for the partially sighted it was one to 7.3. This school has 6.7 visually impaired pupils per specialist teacher, excluding the peripatetic teacher.

(g) The school provides a base for resources for visually impaired children in the whole local area. The peripatetic teacher works from the school, and so is not isolated (as these people often are), and the resource team can provide guidance for other local schools.

(h) Welfare assistants make an important contribution to the support of the visually impaired children, but the head ensured this was provided by an increased allocation of assistants to the school as a whole. This reduces the risk of specialist staff feeling the need for a distinct role, and encourages the development of skills to support visually impaired children in all the ancillaries.

Developments in school curriculum and organization

Loosening boundaries

4.31 Not only do we need to rethink the manner and place in which special education has traditionally been delivered to pupils in schools, we need to re-examine the boundaries between remedial, special and ordinary education. The Warnock Report proposed the ending of a distinction between remedial and special education, and supported the notion of a wider group of children in both ordinary and special schools as having 'special educational needs'. This formulation has been enshrined in the 1981 Act and there are fears on the part of parents and others that the traditional view of special education has thereby been expanded, and that a wider group of children will now receive a distinctive and stigmatized form of education. There are definite dangers that such an approach will be taken by some schools and LEAs. But in this unit we are suggesting that the boundaries between remedial, special *and ordinary* education should be made to disappear.

4.32 Any set of divisions which have a history may prove remarkably resistant to change, particularly when they are supported by a vast literature as well as occupational aspirations. In Carterton School, in Case study 51, a remedial and special department co-exist within the same school. In Case study 42 there are special remedial classes designated as 'City and Guilds' for the upper school while separate classes have been abolished lower down. However, the Oxfordshire study (Case study 51) also includes an account by Jean Garnett of the way the distinction between remedial and special has been abolished at Bicester School. May Wilson and Geoffrey Broadhead (1979) describe how one secondary school, Galashiels Academy, found that the overlap in abilities and needs between the school remedial and special departments led them first to merge the two, and second to use the opportunity to review the extent of learning difficulties in the whole school. These authors mention one of the distinguishing features between children categorized as 'special' and others: they are often subject to official ascertainment procedures. The use of 'statements' (see para. 4.42) will continue this official distinction for a small group of children. To what extent will they also continue to create educational and organizational distinctions unrelated to the needs of children?

Facilitating contact

4.33 Existing provision described as involving 'integration' can involve anything from a building on a remote corner of the school campus to pupils at the heart of the physical, academic and educational life of the school. A common pattern for new provision has been a suite of rooms close to but physically separate from the rest of the school. Pingle and Springfield Road schools in Derbyshire (see Case study 46) were planned in that way, as was Drayton in Oxfordshire (Case studies 48 and 51). At Bicester, Jean Garnett found that moving the unit into the centre of the school aided academic and social integration (Case study 51, p. 427). Reading 3.2 describes a special centre which was put next to the main entrance and the head's office, making its inhabitants a visible part of the school.

4.34 Hegarty and Pocklington (1982) describe one large centre for 40 children with physical disabilities (the same size as many special schools). The centre catered for children with spina bifida, cerebral palsy, muscular dystrophy and heart defects. Some had epilepsy in addition, had 'toileting problems', were confined to wheelchairs or depended on walking aids. The staff in the unit were very successful with moving the 'bright' children into the main school for some of their lessons but felt that 'they would end up running an ESN(M) unit' containing only the less able. The staff had been set on integrating children with physical disabilities and had to revise their approach for children who also had learning difficulties. Gradually, however, they devised strategies to include all the children in some lessons.

4.35 Where special areas within schools have been purpose-built to accord with a segregating philosophy, this may limit the extent to which their usage can be transformed, though even in such buildings it might be possible to make changes. The provision in Drayton Comprehensive School for slow learners (which is mentioned in Case study 51 and the subject of Case study 48) was originally intended as 'a self contained entity' for pupils categorized as ESN(M), where they would receive all their lessons, both 'academic' and 'craft' based (Hegarty and Pocklington, 1982). However, the heads of the school and the special department were keen to blur distinctions between special and non-special pupils and staff. Pupils from the special department now attend a proportion of mixed ability lessons, staff from the main school teach within the department, and teachers originally attached to the special area teach in the main school. But as yet the definite physical separation of the special department does create a physical and also a psychological limit to integration.

4.36 One of the major lessons to be learned from observing integration in action is that any set of arrangements represents a point on a continuum and that they can be rearranged. In one junior school with a 'unit' for hearing impaired children attached to it, there was originally very little integration evident. The hearing impaired pupils were based in separate buildings next to the school on the same site. 'Separatist tendencies' were strong amongst the specialist staff. The appointment of a new head led to considerable changes in the organization of the main school. The hearing impaired children were attached to registration groups in the main school, with a minimum of withdrawal for specialized individual or group work. Teachers were grouped into year teams, with a specialist teacher attached to each year group to work with both hearing and hearing impaired children (Hegarty and Pocklington, 1982).

4.37 This is similar to the change that occurred in the organization of the resource base for visually impaired children described in Reading 3.2. This mode of organization helps to establish that the class teacher or teaching team has responsibility for the child, and so encourages the development of teaching methods which minimize the amount of withdrawal needed. It also means that when separate teaching does occur, it can be closely related to the mainstream curriculum.

4.38 Special support needs to be organized, then, so that there is a flow of pupils into mainstream lessons and activities wherever possible. In discussions of integration there is often a threefold distinction between non-lesson periods such as playtime and lunchtime, 'non-academic' lessons such as craft, drama and cookery lessons, and the academic curriculum. In some schools it may be participation in activities outside lessons, arguably the easiest to foster, which are least developed. Although the class for mentally handicapped children at Crofton Infants School (Case study 44) is in the centre of the school,

it has its own relatively isolated play area outside with a fence separating it from the rest of the school grounds. One way to enable the children to mix more would have been to provide carefully supervised common play times. Because, too, they come from a wider area than most of the other children, and often have to use taxis, the children in the special class commonly arrive at school later than the rest and have to go home straight after school. This makes participation in assembly and after-school activities difficult if not impossible.

4.39 Some schools devise a very careful set of criteria which have to be met before children can take part in ordinary lessons. But it is possible to set up unrealistic criteria. It should be no more difficult for a child with special needs to gain access to the ordinary classroom than it is for children to be excluded from it. Integration implies making the latter less likely and the former more common. The criteria will evolve with the way support in the classroom is arranged and the extent of curriculum planning and preparation.

What equipment is necessary for integration?

4.40 For some children, particularly those with sensory impairments, there will need to be a transfer of equipment and materials along with the child, though a balance has to be drawn between essential equipment and that which unnecessarily separates children from others. Hegarty and Pocklington describe the resources provided for hearing-impaired children in the mainstream in one LEA:

> In the early days small open-topped booths were constructed within classrooms in the primary schools that the first children attended. These were acoustically treated in order to cut down the level of ambient noise. It was also thought that they would reduce the visual distraction for the hearing impaired. However, they were only availed of for a limited period. All the schools currently involved have sufficient spare space outside the classroom to facilitate any withdrawal that proves necessary. Acoustic treatment has been more problematic, for the simple reason of cost. As pupils move from room to room within a school and from one school to another, it would not be feasible to provide full acoustic treatment for the large number of rooms that would be involved. This is particularly so at secondary level. In some cases partial treatment has been provided by means of carpeting and curtaining. This has not been done, however, in all of the withdrawal areas, a factor which must be regarded as a drawback since these areas are used for auditory training, speech improvement and so on. It should be noted, however, that the widespread use of radio aids greatly reduces the effect of poor acoustic conditions.
>
> Apart from the high level of staffing, the other major resource is personal aids to hearing. When the programme began every pupil was provided with a radio hearing aid. A transmitter and battery charger were also included. Apart from this no other expensive equipment is required. Teachers of the deaf have their own auditory trainers which they take around from school to school. If there is need of a tape-recorder or other technical apparatus then in the past these have been acquired from the school for the deaf which has functioned as a back-up resource. Being fully a part of their respective schools, pupils naturally make use of all relevant school resources. The organizer pays over a yearly capitation allowance to each school which is intended to cover the cost of classroom consumables.
>
> (Hegarty and Pocklington, 1982, pp. 191–2)

A special curriculum?

4.41 You will recall from Unit 5/6 that not everything that happens in special schools is special, and that not everything that is special is appropriate. To the extent that special schools are special places in which ordinary education takes place, there is no problem of transfer. Where a special curriculum does exist and is appropriate, it is important to ensure that the resources are transferred to allow it to continue; an example of this is the teaching of braille to blind children. But special schools are often criticized for being special in a negative sense. The head of an ESN(M) school in Cleveland claimed that the curriculum in schools of this type was often 'arid and mind bogglingly boring' (Galletley, 1981). If this is so, integration can offer an opportunity to improve the curriculum. The problem, then, is not 'how do you retain the special curriculum?', but 'how do you provide an interesting and appropriate curriculum for all children?'

Creating individual plans?

4.42 Integration involves planning the ways in which children can share an education with others but it also demands specific attention to the needs of individuals. Under the 1981 Act this is to be done for a small group of children with special needs under the official statementing procedures. It is envisaged that children who are the subject of statements will be the same group as those traditionally thought of as handicapped. In fact a new magic number of 2 per cent has entered common discussion to depict the unofficial limits of this group. Under the 1981 Act, statements must:

(a) give details of the authority's assessment of the special educational needs of the child; and

(b) specify the special educational provision to be made for the purpose of meeting those needs.

4.43 There will be all sorts of guidelines for statements issued by LEAs and we have produced a supplement on the 1981 Acts in England and Scotland which includes information on 'statements'. An adequate statement might contain:

(a) a statement of present capacities and interests in relation to the curriculum;

(b) any educational implications of the physical or sensory impairment;

(c) a description of the present curriculum provided for the child;

(d) a description of the curriculum to be provided, including specialist resources required and methods for providing these;

(e) a statement of non-educational needs (e.g. for physical access), with the implications for in-school provision and resources to meet them.

4.44 The statement would be expanded and implemented in day-to-day work with the child. Appendix 2 of Unit 10 is one teacher's account of the changes in her teaching style, material and equipment that she devised to teach a blind child in her class. A development plan like this could be produced by a teaching team for any child or group of children with special needs; each plan would differ according to the school and children concerned.

4.45 There are many people who envisage the creation of individual plans as the pre-eminent feature of special education along the lines of the individual educational programmes described in Unit 10. The behavioural objectives approach has been described in Units 5/6, 12 and 14. We have suggested that there are dangers in devising plans for the individual integration of children with special needs, particularly if they are confined to one theoretical approach, such as incremental learning according to specified behavioural objectives. Taken to its extreme such an approach may give limited educational opportunities to the very children who required the most flexible and imaginative teaching, and may separate children with special needs from the curriculum of their peers. Integration demands a careful balance between tailoring curricula for each child's needs and interests, and giving access to the shared culture and general curriculum of the school.

Before and after school

4.46 Under-fives and 16–19 year olds with special needs were regarded by the Warnock Committee as priority groups. The 1981 Education Act, however, contains nothing about meeting these needs. The only reference to either age-group is in Section 6, which empowers LEAs to assess children under two. In this course we have argued that education should involve, and respond to the demands of, local communities and that this may mean catering for all ages. More pre-school children and post-school students are using educational facilities, and it makes sense for there to be a coherent policy which acknowledges the continuity of people's lives before, during and after the period of statutory schooling.

4.47 In the absence of a central directive, some local authorities will act only when parental pressure, for example, forces them to do so, whereas others will go ahead and give higher priority to the planning and setting up of integrated, community-based provisions for the non-compulsory years of education, such as combined nursery centres

or community education centres. These would be non-selective in terms of intake, but places where any specialist service could be delivered.

4.48 Young children with physical, mental and sensory impairments, language difficulties or behaviour problems can become involved with a whole range of health, education and social services professionals, specialist voluntary societies or local parents groups and community centre groups. Very often the work of the professionals concerned is aimed at minimizing disability and consequent handicaps. A concentration of specialist help, however, can make it difficult for the children to participate in ordinary local groups and, as is argued in Unit 14, an unrealistic belief in the possibility of prevention may have negative implications for society's acceptance of adults with disabilities.

4.49 A number of recent publications (e.g. Walker, 1981; Rowan, 1981; Anderson and Clarke, 1982) have shown how school leavers with special needs have to face considerable adverse discrimination when it comes to further education, employment, unemployment benefits, opportunities for independent living and travel allowances. Young people with special needs are only a part of a huge group which is giving cause for concern at the moment as a generation that may never experience majority employment, and the response has not been to make benefits more generous or further education more widely available.

4.50 The pressure to segregate is not just a feature of the education system and so an integrated, comprehensive system cannot be achieved in isolation from other statutory services. As one social worker has put it:

> An integrated education system alone is not enough. Where children live, sleep, eat and play is, to me, as important to that child's future place in our society . . . Lifestyle and education go hand in hand . . . Until we achieve this sort of integration within the community for handicapped children, handicapped adults (yesterday's children) will always be segregated and misused.
>
> (Toyne, 1981)

4.51 Planning a comprehensive system, providing continuity before and after school, entails asking questions about the system as it is now: What is the range and availability of options? How much residential care in the community is there? How much cooperation between statutory services at a local level? How much local planning is subject to public debate? What are local attitudes towards handicapped children and adults, as reflected in play facilities, access to public buildings and willingness to employ people with disabilities?

4.52 A recent study of nursery centres had this to say about support for handicapped children:

> The amount and nature of support depended on the policy of each local authority in respect of its handicapped children. This ranged from one area where there was no supportive help of any kind for pre-school children other than those in special schools, to one in which children in the combined centre, nursery schools and day nurseries received the help of peripatetic teachers of the deaf, of the mentally handicapped and speech therapists, and where staff could also get advice and help from the child guidance clinic and the local assessment centre.
>
> (Ferri *et al.*, 1981)

4.53 The same authors, much criticized by those running nursery centres for their negative, unrealistic and unconstructive report, described how difficult the education and social services were finding it to work together:

> The . . . joint administration of the centres had not proved successful either, and conflict and lack of cooperation finally resulted in three of the centres becoming the administrative responsibility of the education department, a move which led inevitably to a reduction in involvement by the social services department. Many of the decisions relating to the planning and operation of the centres were based on policies and practices inherent in each individual department. There seemed little evidence of a willingness by both sides that the new scheme should fit into an existing framework, with no allowances for any special conditions that might arise . . . It seemed clear that an insufficiently flexible approach on the part of policy makers and administrators represented one of the main

constraints to successful joint administration. The continued division between 'education' and 'day care' discernible in the organisation and practices of the combined centres themselves was similarly apparent in the local authority departments responsible for them. It is difficult to envisage how an integrated service for the under-fives can be successfully developed until such divisions are effectively erased from the minds and actions of those involved.

(Ferri *et al.*, 1981)

New roles for old

4.54 In a system focused on the comprehensive school, ordinary schools would be enriched by the expertise transferred from special schools, whether utilized in team teaching in the mainstream classroom or in resource bases where pupils with a range of special needs can receive particular help. An integrated education system in which ordinary schools work out ways of meeting the range of needs of their very mixed populations would entail a transformation of present professional support services. And special educational needs themselves will change, not only as the intake of a school changes but also as a curriculum that can involve an increasing proportion of the pupils is developed. The pattern of referrals to non-teaching professionals will therefore continually evolve and expectations derived from a traditional training may well be confounded in practice. Responding to changing demands will mean that professionals may have to change roles during their careers and develop more flexible working relationships with children, families, local communities and other professionals, sharing their information and letting everyone affected participate in the decision-making process.

The job of specialist teachers

4.55 In a school aiming for maximum participation of children with special needs, specialist staff will aim to minimize the time they spend with those children on their own and maximize the children's access to the normal curriculum. This gives staff a very different role from the one they play in a special school. How readily many teachers in special schools would take on this new role is difficult to estimate. Along with the difficulties the specialist teacher experienced as described in Reading 3.2, Hegarty and Pocklington (1981) found that 'opportunities for integration were poorly availed of in those locations where the majority of staff had no ordinary school experience' (p. 110). Experience in the particular ordinary school concerned would help even more. Resource bases could be staffed by a combination of teachers transferring from special schools and specially trained teachers who have taught in the ordinary school where the centres are based. This combination would provide a link between the new staff and the rest of the school.

4.56 The jobs done by specialist teachers in the Special Resources Department at Carterton Comprehensive School are described in Case study 51 (pp. 431–2). Direct teaching of a separate group is only one part of their job. A comparable set of roles is performed by a support teacher in Sir Frank Markham Comprehensive School in north Buckinghamshire. She supports twelve children, most of them physically handicapped, who have recently transferred from the Oliver Wells School, a local special school. This takes up about half her time; during the remainder she acts as a remedial teacher with other children. As a support teacher her activities include:

(a) Ensuring pupils understand their work. She sees each child once a week and goes through all their lessons to pick on any difficulties. Some of the pupils spend part of the week in 'private study time' (something only the handicapped children have). During these sessions, she picks up problems and reinforces subject work. This may be especially important for children transferring to a new curriculum and organization. In time this job may diminish.

(b) Acting as the children's 'pastoral care' person, discussing their social life, encouraging their participation and identifying social difficulties.

(c) Establishing and maintaining professional links with other teachers, to gain information about the curriculum and the pupils' progress. Most of this work is done informally.

Integration at secondary school

Twelve children with a variety of difficulties and disabilities have been integrated from Oliver Wells Special School into Sir Frank Markham School in Milton Keynes. They are supported by a full-time specialist teacher and a welfare assistant.

Like all the children Chris arrives by special transport. This has caused some problems.

Bev has a custom-built wheelchair which lifts her to the correct height for lab benches.

A speech therapist works with Ian in mainstream lessons. Her programme is geared to his day-to-day needs.

All children study a wide curriculum. Many subject teachers would like the scheme to expand although some are still unsure about it.

The group has a home base where friends visit at breaks. The great majority of the teaching takes place in ordinary classrooms.

Due to bad design, Bev treks round the building and through five rooms to get to maths.

All the children participate fully in all aspects of the school's social life, including lunch.

Ursula is the most severely disabled in the group. She only spends part of her time here but has made many friends in her form group.

Paul, who has spina bifida, shares in the ordinary life of the school.

Most of the group spend some time in private study, for individual language work and reinforcement of other subjects.

(d) Maintaining contact with parents, some of whom were initially anxious about their children's transfer to a comprehensive.

(e) Promoting positive attitudes amongst other children. Before the handicapped children arrived, she spoke to the ordinary children about disability. Some 200 children were offered the chance to visit the special school, and a quarter took up the offer.

(f) Promoting positive attitudes amongst the staff. She provides information, and increases teachers' understanding of handicap through in-service training courses with the assistance of senior staff of both schools. She has organized visits for the staff to the special school, and will also organize visits by the special school teachers to the comprehensive.

(g) Sorting out practical problems such as wheelchairs breaking down.

(h) Accompanying some children to some of their classes, because the LEA has yet to supply ramps for the school.

(i) Monitoring and recording children's progress.

(j) Organizing case conferences involving staff of both schools and outside professionals.

(k) Informing subject teachers of any specific problems that occur. For example, one boy with spina bifida recently developed an ulcer on one foot, and had to use a wheelchair. His teachers were informed.

(l) Supporting children in lessons. Initially she supported two children in maths, but when it became evident they didn't need it she began to support other children who needed help, such as one boy in science.

4.57 Joint planning and exchange of information about curricula are important for specialist staff whose job it is to organize the adaptation of curriculum material. This might involve taping, brailling and preparing improved diagrams and maps for visually impaired children. Advance planning also allows mainstream teachers to anticipate problems with curriculum materials and make adaptations themselves. This is easiest to achieve when the school as a whole is organized for team teaching and specialist staff are part of these teams.

Ancillary staff

4.58 Welfare or classroom assistants are important in many integrated schools, providing physical care and educational support. Hegarty and Pocklington found that they may often be used as carers-cum-dogsbodies. The following timetable shows how much of this work there is to be done. It gives the work done by two welfare assistants in a special department for physically handicapped pupils in a large comprehensive:

08.50	Put out electric wheelchairs. Check that toileting and washing facilities in working order.
09.00	Taxis begin arriving. Meet and transfer children from taxis to wheelchairs (or walking aids). Remove and store outdoor clothing.
09.20	Round up the pupils who have lessons in main school first period. Transfer to internal transportation (the school is split-site which necessitates a mini-bus shuttle service) and escort pupils to their respective classrooms. (This may entail pushing wheelchairs and/or accompanying those who have to negotiate the lift.)
09.30–10.15/ 10.15–11.10	Either remaining with pupils within main school and providing general assistance (e.g. taking notes, assisting with practical work) or undertaking general duties within special department (e.g. helping with activities, dealing with a fit, toileting).
11.10–11.25	Morning break. Setting out school milk, straws, tissues. Returning pupils to special department if that is where they are scheduled next period; transporting others from department to main school. Supervising play. Toileting.
12.20	Lunch. Return pupils to special department. Serve lunch. Sit with pupils and assist with feeding as necessary. General supervision. Toileting.
13.15	Round up those pupils who will be in main school and oversee transportation.

13.25–15.15 As per morning lessons.

15.15 Return pupils to special department. Toileting as necessary. Transfer pupils from electric wheelchairs which remain at school into their own chairs. See pupils off the premises. Arrange sterilisation of toileting apparatus. Clean and lock away equipment. Put electric wheelchairs on overnight charge.

(Hegarty and Pocklington, 1981, pp. 136–7)

Ancillaries can also provide more direct teaching support by preparing curriculum materials, checking children's work, taking dictation from children, interpreting for some deaf children, or carrying out speech therapy and physiotherapy programmes under guidance from professionals. (For other examples of ancillaries' work see Reading 3.2, pp. 147–8.)

Other professionals

4.59 If ordinary schools were to house a continuum of educational provision under one roof and were closely linked to health and social services provisions, then they would become the working base for a much wider range of professionals than is now the case; these would include visiting specialist teachers, therapists, advisers, psychologists and nurses. Some educational psychologists have suggested positive ways in which their own profession might change: working informally with the Youth Service or ethnic minority groups; giving evidence to public enquiries and the courts; becoming involved in local pressure group politics on behalf of the families who have children with special needs. If psychologists were school based they could become more involved with the curriculum and with the work of class teachers, developing a more sustained consultative role with schools rather than continuing to make forays from isolated clinics or administrative offices.

4.60 It may also be true that the new professional roles most valued in a truly comprehensive system are the relatively non-specialized, informal and at the moment cheaper ones such as those performed by ancillary staff and substitute parents. These are the people who will enable children to remain in their local school and community. You may recall that Unit 7 describes some of these new professionals and their developing roles as consultants acting on behalf of families; since their training follows a more apprentice type of in-service, on-the-spot pattern, it can ensure contact with the clients and dispel the mystification which can result from prestigious academic courses (see Potts, 1983).

What *will* happen?

4.61 The 1981 Education Act is to be implemented in April 1983, and children will no longer be assigned to categories of handicap but placed along a continuum of special educational need. What will happen then to the professionals? Sally Tomlinson is convinced that their numbers will continue to grow:

> The new processes of referral and assessment for an expanded special education system will increase the number and type of professionals whose judgements are used to separate special children from ordinary children in schools. The adoption of the concept of 'special educational needs' as a rationale for this separation, and the abolition of statutory categories of handicap are likely to give more, not less, power to professional people. While the [new] assessment processes . . . will increase the numbers of psychological and medical personnel plus other professionals such as social workers, and speech therapists, it is educationalists, particularly heads and teachers in normal education, who will have increased powers to decide that larger numbers of children have special needs, and special educators who will have expanded professional interests in making provision for these children, in special units and classes as well as separate schools.
>
> (Reader, p. 276)

4.62 But meeting the special educational needs of children and young people is not just a question of mobilizing more specialist expert assessors, or of providing improved welfare services; it is inextricably bound up with the acceptance of all children's and adults' rights to education and to the maximum possible participation in their communities. This cannot be achieved when the consumers of services have no share in the

planning and control of these services and when those who are in control are not accessible or accountable to critical clients.

Reading Now read Case study 48, 'An individual timetabling system', by June Statham.

Comment (a) Jim Conway is the first to admit that Drayton School's Basic Studies timetabling system is an 'organizational nightmare', and that there are several undesirable constraints on a completely individualized programme for each child. However, he is committed to the prevention of stigmatized 'ESN' and 'remedial' groups of children, and so is forced to use his imagination.

(b) The greatest stumbling block is the continuing separation between 'Basic Studies' and 'mainstream', which means that both children and subjects are crystallized into two separate groups, successes and failures, despite the appreciable level of contact.

(c) The core curriculum consists of the arts and PE, with all that this implies for these children's status.

(d) The lesson 'modules' are very short, imposing a tightness in the schedule that many of Jim Conway's pupils find bewildering.

Writing your own plans

4.63 It may seem extremely difficult to pin down suggestions, strategies and examples given in the units and case studies to your own LEA, school or college in order to draft a plan for integration. To give you some idea of how it can be tackled, we would now like you to read examples written by two practising teachers while they were on courses. The first, in the Reading that follows, is a plan for increasing the participation of 'maladjusted' and 'non-communicating' children in the general life of an infants school. It was written by a student taking a diploma course in special education. The second example is a plan for increasing the range of educational needs that could be met in a surviving secondary modern school. It was written as a TMA by an E241 student in 1982, who has kindly allowed us to print it as an appendix at the back of this unit. A demonstration of how much we can learn from each other's experience, whether we are academics, practising teachers or students, seemed an appropriate way to end the course.

Reading Now read Case study 50, 'Blueprint for increasing integration in an infant school', by Sylvia Pollock.

Comment Changes that would significantly increase the participation of the unit children in the life of the school as a whole range from administrative arrangements involving decisions that could be taken straight away, to curriculum and staffing issues which need a lot more planning and more LEA support. Timetabling for increased integration should be quite easy, given the flexibility and simplicity of an infant-school day. Sylvia Pollock also makes the point that increasing integration involves looking at both how the school could meet a range of special needs found among the children in the local community and how, specifically, the needs of those already in the units can more satisfactorily be met.

Reading Now read the appendix at the back of this unit.

Summary

4.64 In this section we have considered some of the issues involved in devising a policy to implement integration. One of the most important is that LEA proposals should be made public in order to permit community participation. While resource considerations are important, they involve decisions about the degree of positive discrimination children should receive and as such are largely unaffected by where their education occurs. Special resources should not be allocated in such a way that they actually impede

the integration of children. LEAs need to consider ways of creating a flow of handicapped children, resources, staff and expertise to permit greater participation in comprehensive education. Decisions about who can be integrated and the time scales involved depend upon this unblocking process. Special and ordinary schools can be twinned administratively and share in curriculum development. Policy areas can be established for the creation and maintenance of policy at a local level, to ensure continuity of education. Artificial divisions in terms of buildings and staff can be reduced within ordinary schools to permit flexible arrangements for pupils, depending on their needs. The core curriculum of ordinary schools needs to reflect the comprehensive nature of their intakes. Integration has to be viewed as an unending process of fundamental educational significance for all pupils, a process that involves people of all ages and the professional workers in every service.

5 *Possibilities for progress*

Barriers to integration policies

Social problems

5.1 Progress towards a comprehensive system of education is impeded by a whole variety of social, political, administrative and professional stumbling blocks. One of the most straightforward reasons for not supporting the integration of children with disabilities into ordinary schools is, of course, a simple basic hostility to the move; this is certainly still very common, a vicious circle of inexperience. Some teachers in ordinary schools are against their pupils even *seeing* handicapped children, but such attitudes can change when contacts between pupils are brought about. For example, a School Concern Project was set up in Salford to involve children in ordinary schools in making materials and aids for handicapped children. A teacher who participated in the project described his attitude in the following way: 'I said, "Right, we'll make the aids, but the children aren't going there". But I was persuaded to let them go, and I found I was wrong. They are far more able to cope with seeing these children than I thought they would be' (*Times Educational Supplement*, 3 July 1981).

5.2 In this country there is a characteristically negative response to people who join together to demand their rights. You will remember that on p. 29 of Unit 13, Tony Booth describes the case of David Ward, a student at an Adult Training Centre who is campaigning for membership of the National Union of Students. Despite the reasonableness of his demands to be paid a decent wage for work done, to be allowed to reject stigmatizing labels and to organize groups to press for improvements in working conditions, Mr Ward hit the headlines as a unique case. And he does not have the support of his local authority:

> Essex County Council has refused to recognize the trainees' demand to become students and are not happy about the establishment of a students' union. A spokesman said yesterday the council believed that the mentally handicapped had the right to speak for themselves, but did not agree with the way they were doing it.
>
> (*Guardian*, November 1981)

Official resistance and rhetoric

5.3 The quotation above exemplifies common official formulae which enable local or central government to make no changes but at the same time still appear to be on the side of humanitarian progress. The paragraph below, from the Warnock Report, is another example of such 'treading water' rhetoric:

> If provision is to be effective, a framework is needed within which children may use AS OF RIGHT the general facilities available at school and also receive the special help that they require . . . this should be the guiding principle

> applicable to all the different forms of special educational provision in ordinary schools. It entails the creation of individual learning, including therapeutic programmes, based upon a full and accurate assessment of individual need, and the relating of these programmes to each other and to ordinary teaching programmes. It makes new and formidable demands upon the capabilities of teachers and calls for extra provision in the shape of accommodation, equipment, and on-the-spot supporting services. We cannot envisage any substantial move towards the integration of children with disabilities or significant difficulties unless these conditions . . . are satisfied.
>
> (DES, 1978, para. 7.15)

5.4 What is the message of this paragraph? That all children have a *right* to be educated according to their own needs, in ordinary schools? Or that integration is an expensive, burdensome and unlikely occurrence? The phrases and their meaning are at odds, and the conservatism of its authoritative tone is reminiscent of R. H. Tawney's analysis of the intertia that characterized official debates on poverty seventy years ago. You may remember the passage quoted at the end of Unit 7: 'Those who have the power . . . have not the will, and those who have the will have not, as yet, the power'. What has changed since 1913?

5.5 Unit 7 also raised the issue of confidentiality, and discussed how the protection of the interests of clients can easily be used as an excuse to justify large-scale official secrecy over a long list of items, including the planning of new schools, pupil records and the allocation of funds. The result is that the very people whose lives are most affected by the decisions have the least say in their making.

5.6 At the moment there are three separate education systems: private, and ordinary and special schools in the state system. These divisions continue to be reflected in the Inspectorate and the DES, and are a clear indication of the continuing official resistance to comprehensivization.

The voluntary sector

5.7 Voluntary societies, although explicitly devoted to furthering the interests of people like David Ward, often take on the attitudes of the Establishment. Having worked continuously for perhaps a century to build up a network of services, training schemes and publicity channels, they cherish an established identity and considerable independence from statutory authorities. Because of this, voluntary societies may find themselves committed to the preservation of separate, specialized resources, for their own continuing existence is threatened by integration in educational institutions and community-based provisions.

5.8 The Spastics Society, however, is moving towards a greater acceptance of the principle of integration and recognizes that its own special schools may have to change. The society is also becoming more actively involved with other pressure groups committed to integration, for example the Advisory Centre for Education (ACE).

5.9 One of the fears of the voluntary societies is that local government grants, if not specifically earmarked for a particular organization and its particular client-group, will not benefit their membership via another route but will simply disappear. Concern about the reallocation of resources is a recurrent theme when the comprehensivization of services is discussed. In this unit, however, we have argued that there *are* ways of guaranteeing resources on an equitable basis when children enjoy equal membership of the same communities and educational institutions.

Professionals: caution and careers

5.10 Politicians and bureaucrats are not the only groups to hesitate. The National Union of Teachers (NUT) submitted evidence in February 1981 to the Parliamentary Standing Committee on Children with Special Needs; particular fears were expressed about 'tokenism', or the 'cheap alternative' to a special school that integration made on 'financial and administrative' rather than 'educational' grounds could represent. Throughout the NUT document, the quality of education is stressed. They point to the need to commit extra resources *before* integration takes place:

The Union considers the following conditions to be pre-requisites for the education of children with special educational needs in ordinary schools:

(a) in each ordinary school which admits handicapped children there should be a teacher with special responsibility for these children;
(b) the number of teachers in special classes attached to ordinary schools should always exceed the number of such classes;
(c) the staffing levels in an ordinary school should be improved in relation to the educational problems resulting from the integration of handicapped children, and that this should not be less than 0.1 teacher per handicapped child;
(d) ancillary staff should be appointed with specific responsibility for handicapped children in an ordinary school;
(e) there shall be adequate physical provision in the school;
(f) there shall be medical and paramedical support;
(g) capitation allowances shall be increased for each handicapped pupil in the same way as for children in special classes consisting wholly or mainly of handicapped pupils;
(h) courses of in-service training shall be provided for teachers who will have children with special educational needs in their care;
(i) there shall not be so great a number of children with special needs in a school as to change the nature of the school;
(j) it shall be established as a fundamental principle that placement in ordinary school will give the handicapped child improved educational opportunities, at least matching those found in special schools, and that the education of the other children already in the ordinary school should not be impaired in any way.

(National Union of Teachers, 1981)

5.11 These points are clearly about ensuring that children receive an appropriate education. But should they be made pre-requisites for entry to ordinary schools? An integration philosophy implies that ordinary schools belong as much to children with handicaps or special needs as to other children. It would be the duty of *all* teachers to ensure that *all* children in ordinary schools receive as appropriate an education as possible.

5.12 Another professional barrier to the integration of *children* with special needs into ordinary schools is the continuing separation from the ordinary system of their *teachers*, which is partly the result of the pattern of their training. The Warnock Committee was particularly concerned that special education teachers become academically respectable, and envisaged a recognizably separate sector in which they could find satisfying careers. Yet as the discussion of the job role of specialist teachers made clear, 'ordinary' and 'special' training and careers would overlap considerably in an integrated system.

Agents for change

Organizations for the handicapped

5.13 Resistance to changes in the educational system arises from vested interests in current provisions, from administrative inertia and from the mystification which is the result of so few people either being involved in decision-making or having direct experiences of both of the separated sectors of the state education system. Overcoming these barriers would mean profound changes. However, there are a variety of imaginative schemes put forward by people whose commitment to a process of integration leads them to deny that the obstacles are unscalable. Organizations such as the Campaign for Mental Handicap (CMH) and MIND are particularly concerned to enhance the social position of people who are unable to do this for themselves.

5.14 The independence of CMH and MIND is offset by their inevitable powerlessness. Unlike people who deliver services (the 'street level bureaucrats' of Unit 10), their influence is uncertain. Are pressure groups more effective when the clients themselves are more articulate? For example, even though few people have heard of the Association of Disabled Professionals or of the Association of Blind and Partially-Sighted Teachers and Students, they are more likely to be consulted by official committees of enquiry than CMH. Their public image may not be as strong, but they know how to make themselves heard.

5.15 There is an increasing number of organizations run by and for handicapped people whose aims are to remove the stigma and segregation forced on them by society. Many of these groups are explicitly political, seeing organization, mobilization and pressure as the only route to achieving equal rights and participation. Amongst them are the Liberation Network of People with Disabilities, Sisters and Disablement, and the Union of the Physically Impaired Against Segregation. The last of these has issued a very clear policy statement:

> The Union aims to have all segregated facilities for physically impaired people replaced by arrangements for us to participate fully in society. These arrangements must include the necessary financial, medical, technical, educational and other help required from the State to enable us to gain the maximum possible independence in daily living activities, to achieve mobility, to undertake productive work, and to live where and how we choose with full control over our lives . . . But the basic problem we face is our exclusion from full social participation. It follows that this oppressive situation can be put right only by disabled people *actually taking a more active part* in society. The efforts of professionals and other able-bodied people are therefore really constructive only when they build on and encourage the self-help and activity of disabled people themselves.
>
> (Union of the Physically Impaired Against Segregation, 1976)

5.16 Other groups have prepared carefully argued proposals for the reform of special education. The National Federation of the Blind together with the Association of Blind and Partially-Sighted Teachers and Students have produced a plan for the integration of the visually impaired into ordinary schools, in which they suggest that if resource centres to support blind and partially sighted children were set up in 40 primary and 40 secondary schools in appropriate locations, this would enable 80 per cent of those now in residential schools to live at home (Low, 1983).

Parents

5.17 Parents of handicapped children too are beginning to organize themselves into coherent groups, not merely to share experiences of personal traumas and to support each other practically and emotionally, but also to make joint demands of the people who control their children's educational destiny, and to work to change policy. You will recall the spectacular success of the group of parents in South Oxfordshire described in para. 3.17 of Unit 3.

5.18 In Coventry, a group of parents has formed the Family Focus Group. As a result of discussions between a local voluntary society social worker and the open studies organizer at Warwick University, some of these parents had been brought together to teach on a course for professionals and had decided they would like a course for themselves. More parents were contacted on the grapevine, and after considerable organization they ran a highly successful two day course, the content of which was decided entirely by parents. Child care facilities ensured a large attendance. One issue that emerged as a common concern was the assessment of their children at the local Child Development Unit. Parents felt that there was insufficient consultation and recognition of their knowledge and skills, so the group has gone on to prepare a carefully thought out set of policy proposals for involving parents more in assessment, which they are presenting to local health, social services and education authorities. They have obtained promises from the Area Health Authority and the Social Services Department that they will be consulted in any reviews of policy, but not from the LEA.

5.19 With the implementation of the 1981 Education Act due in April 1983, groups like Family Focus are publicizing their views on cooperation with professionals and outlining the sort of partnership they believe to be essential:

> We feel that professionals should give parents detailed written reports of their assessment of any child. Just as it has come to be regarded as good practice for professionals to share such information with each other, so should they expect to have to share it with parents . . . We would like to see a situation in which parents could attend and play an active and significant role in these case conferences . . . There is crucial information about our children's abilities, disabilities and special needs which can only become available to professionals

> if they involve parents fully in an assessment procedure . . . Just as we recognize how reliant we are upon the knowledge and skills of professionals, we feel that professionals too, must seek to develop forms of practice which recognize the crucial nature of the knowledge and skills which parents have.
>
> (Family Focus, 1982)

5.20 In the end, change comes about because people who are powerful either want change to occur or are themselves forced to change. In 1981, those who had the power to bring about integration—members of Parliament—exercised it in only a very restrained fashion, leaving those with local power enormous discretion to do as they will. Many LEA administrators, if left alone to exercise their powers, will seek to preserve the status quo or something very like it. Those with influence will consolidate their positions. But education in a democracy is too important to be left to the bureaucrats and professionals. Participation should not just mean participation in the use of services, but also in their design and control. Then, perhaps, we shall be able to claim we have a system of integrated community education.

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Appendix

A plan for increasing integration in a secondary school

Helstead County Secondary School [not the real name of the school] is a mixed secondary modern with 600 pupils on roll (September 1982) and around 30 full-time teachers. Helstead also has a small grammar school and an ESN(M) school sited on the other side of the small market town, as well as two primary schools. Helstead Secondary is housed on a split site (about 400 metres separation): on one side a hall, library and five classrooms (purpose built) with an assorted collection of Portakabins; on the other side, two converted huts form a metalwork shop and small science laboratory, other classes being housed in more Portakabins and wooden huts. It is this school for which integration plans will be presented.

Each year group is currently split into five streams on 'ability', labelled A to E, the last being termed 'remedial'. Some pupils do change streams as a result of annual examination assessment. I use the term 'ability' in a very loose sense since exam results seem the only guide used in assessment, and even these fail to explain a consistent ratio of 2.4 boys : 1 girl through the E streams!

The LEA has retained an 11 plus assessment wherever possible and has, as a local authority, consistently maintained a position near the bottom of the spending leagues for education and for social services for the handicapped. However, these problems need not be viewed as peculiar to the school and integration is almost certain to bring about a change in attitudes. Moreover, the LEA has already shown interest in integrating hearing-impaired children in one primary school.

The dynamics of the plan are loosely based on the five-step pattern (see para. 4.20), which involves exchange and co-ordination, and part- and full-time transfer for some and then all children.

Teachers on both sides are desperately in need of a combination of reassurance, support and education to overcome ignorance. This should be stimulated by a regular series of meetings to exchange views frankly, and such meetings should not be on a voluntary or *ad hoc* basis, but organized so that all teaching staff can participate (not necessarily all at once!). The additional specialist helpers (from therapists and psychologists to ancillary staff) and parents must also have access by right to such meetings to explain their own roles, answer questions, and to define needs as they see them.

There is also a need to overcome the dependence on 'chalk and talk' or 'textbooks and worksheets', to adapt to the specific requirements of the deaf or blind child, and to meet with those whose experience with handicapped children means they have already gained independence from such methods. In return, special school teachers might benefit by realizing that may of the problems associated with 'slow-learners' or 'emotionally disturbed' children are also faced by teachers in ordinary schools as every-day occurrences, emphasizing to all the rather arbitrary divisions that exist at present. The open-ended nature of 'hyperactive', 'autistic' and 'dyslexic' definitions could be discussed with professionals to remove the false images that these are medically accepted facts, have clearly defined symptoms, show specific and common behaviour patterns, etc.

In a small town in a rural area the schools need to make the best use of limited professional resources. Helstead already has a health centre, and as a base for qualified medical staff it is within ten minutes' walking distance of all the schools mentioned. Specialists may be assigned 'on-site' to a particular school, but with a view towards integration might consider that there are advantages in 'off-site' basing for responding to all schools and achieving more flexible use of specialist equipment. The centre already houses school dentist, speech therapy, child welfare clinic etc., and is a vital link in the concept of community health. This matters when the total number of children is not great, and may be the only way to justify full-time appointments for some specialists. In addition, the largest local general practice operates from the centre, so it is a situation familiar and acceptable to parents. The close proximity of schools and health centre offers faster

lines of communication, for there is no need to send written reports from one establishment to another.

Complete integration is not something that could happen by change in a single school, but an issue involving the community. If a school needs some new buildings to cater for the handicapped, then these buildings could be used for the whole community—not merely for evening classes, but for youth centres, a PHAB youth club, and a base for hobbies groups and other clubs.

It is nonsensical to proceed further without considering how to remove existing segregation. This involves dismantling the formal apparatus of the remedial department and the introduction of mixed ability grouping. Whilst the remedial teachers have shown some sympathy to the idea, the real opposition comes from most of the mathematics and science departments, and from the Year Tutors. I would suggest these may be the very people whose prestige has been gained as a result of the streaming process, and whose teaching is largely concentrated on the A and B streams.

Former remedial specialists would still play a vital role in the servicing of needs within mixed ability groups, as would the special school teachers as they transferred to the ordinary school, where the development of a resource area might concentrate some equipment. Ancillary helpers could work both within this area and within the mixed ability groups, with a far more active role than the child-minding function some are restricted to at present.

Overall staffing ratios are likely to show very little improvement in the near future, yet with the development of team teaching and resource areas there must be positive steps taken to work towards smaller groupings. The present pattern of small select GCE groups, leaving large numbers of lower stream pupils to be catered for by one or two members of staff, would have to stop. The abolition of free periods would also be a useful step, already achieved by some other ordinary schools. At Helstead it would be necessary to convince the Head, Deputy, Senior Master and some Department Heads that they, too, should work with pupils, since the pattern here is to regard 'real promotion' as the allocation of a private office and removal from the teaching timetable. The staff room could soon become redundant if we rejected the distinction between teaching and non-teaching time and paid more attention to the value of pupil–teacher contact.

Teachers need to accept that the only good and true way to find out what is possible is to try it first. It might help if teachers had a less parochial education. Few teachers could give a satisfactory account, for example, of patterns in Sweden, Norway or Italy. Such knowledge would broaden horizons and remove illusions, and Helstead could promote more INSET sponsorship for teachers, such as on the E241 course, to increase awareness for teachers.

Other handicapped children and their parents can hardly be filled with confidence at the ordinary school's failure to campaign for the rights and future of their pupils. A point sometimes overlooked is the teachers' own attitudes towards handicap. Teachers who are handicapped have had to form their own union, and I have never seen a teacher in a wheelchair or a blind teacher in an ordinary secondary school, and do not know of any deaf teachers at all. If we are to integrate the physically handicapped, some positive discrimination for handicapped teachers could do more than well-intentioned talks for the benefit of parents.

At Helstead I would first transfer children part time to classes in subjects where the teachers concerned are most receptive to their needs, and capable of discussing with special schools and support services how to make the best use of the provision available.

In English there is already some recognition that the subject matter is too often a textbook on grammar that is out of step with the real world. Audiotapes could be used to simulate broadcasts, and newspapers and magazines to simulate the type of reading that most of us actually indulge in; drama should be chosen so that it reflects patterns of language (not stereotyped grammar) in real situations. Any text should be a guide and not a bible, a source of ideas not a bank of facts.

Individual pupils would need special aids. Some might be purchased by the school, some may have to be shared with other schools (for example machines to copy text into

braille). Items such as low vision aids, suitable cassette players and page-turners can easily be obtained; they are not expensive, and pupils whose handicaps are mainly overcome by such aids should be speedily transferred to the ordinary school. It will probably be the multiply-handicapped (where ordinary school teachers may feel most hesitant) who will be among the last of the transfers.

The early transfers are likely to include wheelchair-users, and the provision of suitable toilet facilities, the building of ramps and sensible room timetabling can make this possible. The child whose lack of mobility is really lack of access can, and should, be catered for immediately.

Along with technical subjects and domestic science, art needs to be presented as a valuable design process playing as much a part in our society as science, mathematics or literacy. Along with several colleagues I resent the suggestion that these 'non-academic' subjects are in some way second rate; they are part of our culture and it is not mere coincidence that the great periods of scientific discovery are also the great periods in art and design. Integration into an art lesson is every bit as valuable as integration into a French or physics lesson.

Many handicapped pupils are simply unable to respond to the pace set for able pupils; a blind person cannot read at the pace required, a deaf person cannot respond to a teacher who only lectures, some cannot write or move fast enough, and others are just left in the wake of a deluge of literacy and numeracy. These are problems to be tackled during the part-time transfer process. To all the protest about the need to keep up for examination courses, I simply say—as a CSE and O level examiner of ten years' standing—that a majority of pupils are already left floundering in an ocean of text and it takes a very able pupil to sort among the debris for the simple clear statements and principles.

In the face of a demand for a core curriculum there is a need to consider what that core should be. If 'design for living' is important, then the development of consumer education, home-making skills, sex education, leisure activities, knowledge of first aid, driving skills, work experience, etc., is important for all, and is as central as literacy and numeracy.

Many examinations in the lower school are now used mainly for setting, and these would have no real purpose once we had mixed ability groups. They could be dispensed with, removing the stigma of the 'failure' label with which many of our children are acquainted before they come to our school and which all teachers should strive to avoid. In the upper school, it is obviously going to be difficult to produce a relevant curriculum when the outside pressures from the DES and LEA will be to conform to a curriculum that terminates in a specific form of examination.

Many schools employ ancillary helpers who could usefully perform a technician's role by helping to service resources areas, doing the duplicating or supervising pupils carrying out their own reprographic work, and assisting children in practical classes. The idea that it is only possible to learn from a teacher is an out-dated concept.

At secondary level, severely mentally handicapped pupils may be the most difficult ones to integrate in a genuine sense. It is no more difficult to have them in the school than other children, but including them in a special unit within the school can be just another form of segregation rather than real integration. It may be that we have to open our minds not just to mixed ability but to mixed age groupings. Certainly discussion on what is really meant by integration for severely mentally handicapped children seems to be lacking.

Parents of handicapped children need to be involved at all of these stages. In planning they are the experts who know most about their child's special needs, particularly in the many everyday tasks of living. They are the valuable source of feedback as observers of their children's success or failure to progress, and they are the people involved with such peripheral matters as transport to and from school.

Parents must have open access to information, and their involvement should not be confined to PTA meetings and the five-minute contact of a typical parents evening. Since Helstead has opposed even PTAs, any significant parental involvement will be a major battle, but the pressure could be made large enough. A parent has to be able to come into school, even into lessons, to discuss a child's progress, and to be able to discuss progress with the child present.

Parents might also work with teachers and the social services to set up projects similar to that described in Case study 49 ('Four handicapped teenagers in transition'), to help handicapped young people make the transition from home and school life to become as independent as they would wish.

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NFER–Nelson Publishing Company Limited for Hegarty, S. and Pocklington, K. (1981) *Educating Pupils with Special Needs in the Ordinary School* Union of the Physically Impaired Against Segregation for *Aims and Policy Statement*, 1976.

Tables

Table 2, Blackwells, Oxford, for Booth, T. and Potts, P. (1983) *Integrating Special Education*; *Table 3*, NFER–Nelson Publishing Company Limited for Hegarty, S. and Pocklington, K. (1981) *Educating Pupils with Special Needs in the Ordinary School*; *Table 4*, NFER–Nelson Publishing Company Limited for Reid *et al.* (1981) *Mixed Ability Teaching*.

The course

This text forms part of an Open University course, E241 *Special Needs in Education.* The complete list of units in the course appears below.

Unit 1/2 Special biographies	Unit 10 National perspectives
Unit 3 Family views	Unit 11 Biology and handicap
Unit 4 Education for adult life?	Unit 12 Psychology and special education
Unit 5/6 A special curriculum?	Unit 13 Handicap is social
Unit 7 The professionals	Unit 14 Eradicating handicap
Unit 8 The powers that be	Unit 15 Research and progress in special education
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